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A BRIEF SURVEY

OF

BRITISH HISTORY

BY

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PREFACE

I have aimed, in this book, at making a simple selection of the most important factors, or chain of events, in each period, and have treated these in more detail, to the exclusion of others which seem to me less characteristic of the period. It has sometimes been taken for granted that the right method of teaching history is to lay down a preliminary groundwork of facts and dates and miscellaneous scraps of important information, before making an attempt to awake interest in the connection of historical events by the process of reasoning. The principle is somewhat akin to the mode of teaching languages by grinding over grammar and accidence; it is at any rate time-honoured. But the value of history as an educational subject, even for the young, cannot, I think, be fully realized, unless some stress is placed upon the sequence of cause and effect, so as to exercise not merely the memory but the reason.

Understanding is a far more attractive process than merely learning; young minds are by nature curious, and are receptive enough of an explanation, provided it be simple; and the difficulties of remembering are much lessened when events in history are presented, not as isolated, but as the causes or consequences of other events. It is this object that I have tried to keep before me.

HARROW, *July*, *1899*.

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A BRIEF SURVEY OF BRITISH HISTORY.

I.—THE RACES OF BRITAIN.

The history of Britain, so far as it is written, begins with invasions of the Romans under Julius Cæsar. But although the Roman writers record the movements of the legions and the battles they won, they tell us little of what is of much more interest to us now, namely, what sort of people dwelt in our island in these early days. Still, what ancient writers did not know, or have not told us, has been supplied by the learning of modern days. Those who study races and languages teach us that before the Romans came Britain was inhabited by Celts; that the race of Celts were divided into two branches, the Gaels—from whom are descended the Irish and the Highlanders—and the Britons, whose descendants now inhabit Wales.

Celts, Britons, and Gaels.

As we are to observe especially those events which have been not only striking in themselves, but which have borne fruit, so to speak, and have produced great effects on the history of our island, we may dismiss the Roman occupation of it very shortly, for almost all that the Romans did perished when they left. After Julius Cæsar's expeditions (55–54 B.C.) it was close on a hundred years

Roman Invasions.

before they sent another. The Britons could not resist them. Piece by piece they subdued most of the island, although one violent British revolt, led by Queen Boadicea, nearly destroyed the Roman power. It was put down and the queen slain, but not before she had sacked and burned the three chief Roman towns—Colchester, St. Albans, and London. The Romans never subdued the north, which was inhabited by the Picts,—"painted men"—as the Romans called them, from their habit of painting their bodies with blue dye. The Emperor Hadrian fixed the northern limits of the Roman conquest by the great wall which stretched from the Solway to the Tyne, parts of which still exist. Yet, when, after 350 years of occupation, the Romans withdrew, their power soon crumbled away. It perished in France and Spain too, but not so completely, for the language of these countries is derived from Latin. But the Romans in Britain left no trace on our language, except in a few names, such as Chester, Gloucester, and Lincoln, which indicate Roman camps or colonies.

The Britons were not long left in peace. They were attacked by the Picts from beyond Hadrian's wall, and by the Scots, a people who came first from Ireland, but afterwards settled in the south-west of Scotland, giving their name to the country. The unwarlike Britons, in order to drive them back, invited the help of a band of warriors from the northern shores of Germany. This led to a new invasion, that of the Saxons, much more terrible than that of the Romans.

Picts and Scots.

It is said that the first comers were commanded by two leaders, Hengist and Horsa. Horsa was killed in battle just after their arrival, but Hengist established himself in Kent. He was followed by other

ROMAN BRITAIN
Roads
Forests
Fens
HIBERNIA
CALEDONII
PICTI
MEATAE
Caledonian Forest
ANTONINUS' WALL
HADRIAN'S WALL
Luguballium (Carlisle)
BRIGANTES
Eboracum (York)
Mancunium (Manchester)
Mona I.
Lindum (Lincoln)
CORITANI
Deva (Chester)
Uriconium (Wroxeter)
Ratæ (Leicester)
Venta (Caistor)
ORDOVICES
WATLING STREET
FOSSE WAY
CATUVELLAUNI
ICENI
TRINOBANTES
SILURES
Glevum (Gloucester)
Verulamium (St. Albans)
Camulodunum (Colchester)
Isca (Caerleon)
LONDINIUM (London)
Aquæ Sulis (Bath)
BELGAE
CANTII
Venta (Winchester)
Dubræ (Dover)
Sorbiodunum (Old Sarum)
REGNI
Isca (Exeter)
Regnum (Chichester)
Anderida (Pevensey)
DUMNONII
GALLIA

leaders and other bands, some being Jutes from Jutland or Denmark, others Saxons from the land by the mouth of the Elbe, and others Angles from Schleswig. But these were all similar in race and language; they spoke what has turned by degrees into our own tongue—English.

The Invasion of the Saxons, 449.

They were fierce warriors, and the Britons could not stand before them. They worshipped heathen gods; they hated and destroyed towns; they spared none, and took no captives. We read of the Saxon chiefs who stormed the fortress of Anderida: "Ælla and Cissa beset Anderida, and slew all that were therein; nor was there afterwards one Briton left". The Britons fled westwards before them, leaving behind little trace of their habits or their language. As each piece of the country was torn from them, it was formed into a new Saxon kingdom. The names of our shires tell us this: Essex, Sussex, Wessex are the settlements of the East, South, and West Saxons; Norfolk and Suffolk, of the North and South folk of the Angles; Northumbria, the realm north of the Humber; Mercia, the "march" or border country next to the Britons.

The first invaders had come in 449; it was not till 120 years later that the Britons were driven completely to the west. A great victory at Dyrham, in Gloucestershire, let Ceawlin, King of the West Saxons, reach the Severn; and another at Chester, some thirty years later, extended the power of Ethelfrith, King of Northumbria, to the western sea. Henceforward the Britons or Welsh ("foreigners"), as the invaders called them, were split into three separate parts, dwelling in Cornwall, Wales, and Strathclyde, the last being most of the western coast between the Ribble and the Clyde.

Battles of Dyrham, 577; and Chester, 613.

So far we have looked at the Saxons as a wild, warlike race; but these wild, warlike men are our own ancestors, and we must see more closely what we have got from them. One thing has been mentioned already—our language. But there is much more than that. These rude savages, when they landed under Hengist and Horsa at Ebbsfleet, brought with them the beginnings of most of the institutions under which our country is governed to-day.

Saxon Institutions.

The first thing to remark is that the Saxons were a people who thought much of freedom. The power of a king or chief was very much limited; they said themselves, "the people had as many rights against him as he had against them".

Freedom.

Following on this we have their love for governing themselves by an assembly. It was an assembly of all the free men—the "folk moot"[1]—that chose the king or leader. It was in the folk moot that all grave matters were discussed and decided; in this assembly we are told that "no man dictated; he might persuade, but he could not command". And the Saxons carried their love for assemblies further. Not only did they have "folk moots", which, when the first small kingdoms in England were changed into shires, became "shire moots", but they afterwards set up hundred moots and township moots for the smaller subdivisions called hundreds and townships. These assemblies not only decided local questions, but they formed courts of justice; so that we see here another mark of our national character, the love of managing our own law-courts. This is all something like the system of assemblies we now have

Government by Assembly.

[1] Moot means a meeting.

—the District and County Councils, with the sovereign assembly of Parliament at the head.

And we shall find the origin of Parliament also among the Saxons. As the kingdoms grew too large for all the freemen to assemble, the place of the folk moot was taken by the Assembly of the Wise Men, or the Witan. In it sat the "aldermen", the rulers of the shires, and the "thegns" or chiefs of the king's body-guard, who were the nobles and great land-owners of the time; and in later days, when the Church was established in England, the archbishops and bishops sat there too. This body somewhat resembled our House of Lords; it differed indeed from Parliament, for there were no commons to represent the people. But it wielded many of the powers which Parliament wields now. It made laws; it was consulted about affairs of state, on questions of peace and war, of treaties, of religion; it could elect a king, it could depose a king.

The Witan.

And so when in later days we find Parliament refusing to allow Charles I. to make laws and govern at his will, or interfering in questions of religion as it did in Henry VIII.'s days, or offering the crown of England as it offered it to William III., or deposing a king as it deposed Richard II., we may remember that it was only using powers which had belonged to its ancestor, the Saxon Witan.

II.—THE COMING OF CHRISTIANITY.

The Saxon invasion seemed a change for the worse. Under Roman rule the Britons had been united, civilized, and Christian. The Saxons divided

the country afresh, and brought with them endless wars and violence; they allowed towns to go into decay; they were heathens, worshipping Woden and Thor. All that appears in their favour at first is that they were a more vigorous people than the Britons whose place they took. Under them Britain was for a time lost to Europe. It had been a prosperous Roman province, but ruin came over it. It returned to the dark and savage time from which the Romans had raised it. Rome, however, was to conquer it afresh; this time the conquest was not to be made by Roman legions for a Roman emperor, but by Roman missionaries for the Roman Church.

The Saxons Heathens.

It happened that Ethelbert, King of Kent, married Bertha, a Christian princess from France. The pope at this time, Gregory the Great, saw that this offered a chance of converting the heathen Saxons. Every one knows the familiar story, how, passing through the slave-market at Rome, he had seen some fair-haired slaves standing there; he asked whence they came, and was told they were Angles—"Not Angles but Angels" was his answer. "And who is their king?" "Ælla", was the reply. "Alleluia shall be sung in the realm of Ælla", said Gregory. When he became pope he made up his mind to keep the promise so quaintly uttered. So he sent Augustine and a band of forty missionaries to Britain. In 597 they landed at Ebbsfleet, the very place where Hengist and his Saxons had landed a hundred and fifty years before.

The Mission of Augustine, 597.

King Ethelbert was soon converted, and his subjects followed his example, so that Kent was the first Saxon kingdom to become Christian. Then, just as a Frankish princess had

Conversion of Kent,

given the chance of sending a mission to Kent, so a Kentish princess, Ethelburga, who married Edwin, King of Northumbria, carried another mis-

and of Northumbria.

sionary, Paulinus, to the north. The last great stand for heathendom was made by Penda, King of Mercia, but after thirteen years of fighting he was killed in battle, and soon after his death his subjects also became Christians.

Meanwhile the Roman monks were not the only missionaries at work. Britain and Ireland had been converted to Christianity in the Roman days, and now from the Celtic peoples came a fresh stream of missionaries. St. Aidan, a Scot, came from the Abbey of Iona and set up a monastery at Lindisfarne. His aim was "to teach no otherwise than he and his followers lived", and the simple, godly habits of his monks showed everyone what Christians should be.

St. Aidan and the Scottish Monks.

Unfortunately, though the Celtic and Roman missionaries were striving for the same good object, they could not quite agree. The Celtic Church did not acknowledge the supremacy of the Roman Church, and the two differed about some small points. One was the day on which Easter should fall. In 664 a Synod was held at Whitby to consider the matter. The Scottish bishop Colman supported the practice which his church had received from St. Columba, its founder; Wilfred, the abbot of Ripon, took the Roman side. Oswy, the king, asked Colman if the keys of heaven had been given to Columba, as they had been given to Peter. Colman replied, "No". "Then," said the king, "if Peter is the door-keeper I will never contradict him, lest when I come to the gates there should be none to open them"—and so he decided

Synod of Whitby.

for the Roman practice. His decision was important. Had he decided the other way it would have cut Britain off from joining with the rest of Europe in matters of religion, and might have left us without the civilization and learning which, as we shall see, Rome gave us.

The Church was now one in practice and belief, but it was not united or organized. As the country was divided into several kingdoms men did not speak of one church, but of many. The work of uniting all churchmen under one church and one head was done by a Greek monk, Theodore of Tarsus, who was chosen by the pope to be Archbishop of Canterbury. He divided the land into dioceses, gave each bishop his own district to manage, and held national synods in which all who came thought of themselves no longer as men of Northumbria, Kent, or Wessex, but as members of one united church.

The Church United and Organized by Theodore, 667.

If we look for the results of the conversion upon our country, the first is here. A united church gave the example for a united people; union under one archbishop accustomed men to think of union under one king; if they were alike in religion, they might well be alike in law and government. And we shall see that this soon came to pass; the old petty kingdoms died out or were absorbed, until one kingdom—that of Wessex—became the kingdom of England.

A National Church an Example of a United Nation.

The Church offered an example of union; it also offered an example of peace. Among the Saxons men had been chiefly thought of for their valour. Theirs was the rule of might; little was thought of right. Even murder might be atoned for by payment of a fine. But the monks and

Peace and Morality.

parish priests lived peaceful lives: they taught that doing one's duty at home was better than seeking adventures abroad; that it was better to forgive an enemy than to overcome him; that a man should strive to be loved rather than feared. Thus the Church began a better system of law in England. Instead of compensating for acts of violence by money, it made wrong-doers atone for them by penance.

The Church and Learning; Caedmon, 664.

To the Church, too, we owe the beginnings of our learning. The Abbey of Whitby found shelter for a cowherd who had become a monk. This man was Caedmon, the first English poet. His great religious poem seemed to those of his time to be sent direct from heaven. "Others after him strove to compose religious poems, but none could vie with him, for he learnt not the art of poetry from men, or of men, but from God." Bede,—the 'Venerable Bede' is the respectful title that has been bestowed on him,—another monk, is a type of the great teachers whom the Church gave us. "My constant pleasure", he says, "lay in learning, or teaching, or writing." At his school of Jarrow six hundred monks learned from him. He was our first historian; and, indeed, it is he who tells us almost all we know of this time. And yet more than this, he translated into English St. John's Gospel, devoting the last days of his life to the task. He was urged to rest from the work that was killing him, but he refused, saying, "I don't want my boys to read a lie, or to work to no purpose when I am gone". When the last chapter of the Gospel was finished the great scholar died.

Bede, d. 753.

Another, and a very different type, from among the men the Church gave us was Dunstan. He too was

a monk, but while Bede was a scholar, Dunstan was not only a scholar but a statesman also. He was the adviser of two kings, and practically regent for a third; he went with the king on campaigns against the Danes; he kept the royal treasure. As in addition he was Archbishop of Canterbury, we can understand that he was much the most powerful man in the kingdom. He was the first man to be great both as a cleric and as a statesman. But there were many who followed in his steps. In fact, until the reign of Henry VIII. the greatest ministers of our kings were almost always clerics. They were far more able and enlightened than the ignorant warriors and nobles who formed the king's court, and they did a great work for England. As we shall see later, one of these church-statesmen, Stephen Langton, had much to do with obtaining for us our Magna Carta.

Statesmen; Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury, 960.

The Church, then, gave us the beginnings of our national unity; she did much to give us peace at home and a better sense of what was lawful and right; she gave us scholars, and she gave us statesmen.

III.—THE UNION OF ENGLAND UNDER THE KINGS OF WESSEX. ALFRED AND THE DANES.

Out of the number of little Saxon kingdoms which existed at first in England, it happened that now one and then another grew more powerful than its neighbours, and held a vague kind of sway over the rest. First of all Northumbria obtained such a position, and afterwards Mercia. When

Rise of Wessex.

this was so, the King of Northumbria or Mercia was called a Bretwalda, or overlord. Thus King Edwin of Northumbria and King Offa of Mercia were called Bretwaldas. In the year 800, however, a new kingdom rose to the chief power. This was Wessex. Egbert, its king, first subdued Kent and Sussex, and thus made himself master of England south of the Thames; then he attacked the Mercians, and defeated and slew their king in battle, so the Mercians became his subjects. Soon afterwards Northumbria submitted to him also.

Thus under Egbert England was united. With him begins the history of our kings, for with four exceptions[1] every king who has sat on the throne of England till the present day has had Egbert's blood in his veins. So the overlordship of Wessex is of far greater interest in our history than that of any other kingdom which came before it.

It is likely, however, that Wessex might have risen only to fall again, like Northumbria and Mercia, but for an event which forced the necessity of union upon all England. This event is the coming of the Danes.

The Danish invasion was much like the invasion of the Saxons themselves, and the new-comers inflicted on the Saxons almost the same evils that the Saxons had inflicted on the Britons. At first the Danes were mere plunderers, landing from their ships, sacking monasteries and burning towns. At the approach of an enemy they embarked again and made off with their spoil. By degrees they grew bolder; they came in greater numbers, and ventured farther inland; they even began to settle in the country, and so successful were they that by 869 they had

Danish inroads begun, 787.

[1] The exceptions are Canute, the two Harolds, and William the Conqueror.

subdued Northumbria and East Anglia, and seemed likely to become masters of the whole country. The kingdom of Wessex alone was left to resist them. Fortunately at this time there appeared a Saxon hero-king who was equal to the task.

This was Alfred, grandson of Egbert. Even before he became king, while yet a boy of eighteen, he had helped his brother in a year's hard warfare against the Danes. No fewer than six battles were fought, and it was not till the last that the men of Wessex were able to win a great victory at Ashdown. In this battle Alfred was held to have won the chief honours by his skill and bravery. Alfred, 871–901.

The Danes were driven back for the time, but they were not conquered. Early in Alfred's reign a great host of them under Guthrum poured into Wessex. They took London and Winchester, and defeated Alfred again and again, till he was forced to flee to a marshy spot in Somersetshire, called the isle of Athelney. But though all seemed lost, Alfred did not despair. He gathered the men of Devon and Somerset, and, marching against Guthrum, defeated him at Ethandun, drove him to take refuge in his stockade at Chippenham, surrounded him there, and compelled him to submit by starving him out.

The treaty of Wedmore, which Alfred and Guthrum made, divided England into two parts by a line drawn, roughly speaking, from Chester to London. South and west of this Alfred ruled; the north and east remained to Guthrum and the Danes. But Guthrum had to acknowledge Alfred as lord, and to become a Christian; and as the Danes were not very different from the Saxons in race and speech, even the inhabitants of the Danelagh—the Treaty of Wedmore, 878.

district in which the Danes held sway—were able again to enjoy peace. More than once in his reign Alfred had to take up arms afresh against hordes of invaders, but he always overcame them. A Norse poet sang—

> "They got hard blows instead of shillings,
> And the axe's weight instead of tribute".

So they began to think that Alfred was best left alone.

Alfred showed that he was a bold warrior by overcoming the Danes; he also showed that he was a wise statesman by not trying to do too much. He saved Wessex; and though he had for a time to give up the north and east, it was only for a time. His sons and grandsons were destined to recover all that had been lost. Had Alfred done no more than to save the English from being overthrown altogether, we should remember him as one of the greatest of our kings. But he did many other things besides overcoming the Danes.

Alfred a Statesman.

As to-day we think of the British navy as the chief among our many national glories, we should remember that we owe the beginnings of this navy to Alfred. Although the Saxons had been great sailors before they came to Britain, yet when they came they lost their love for the sea. But Alfred saw that the best way to keep off the Danes was by fighting them at sea, and so he built ships bigger and faster than the Danish ships, took into his service Frisian, Welsh, and even Danish sailors to teach his men, and at last was able to guard the shores of England more or less effectually from foreign invaders. He was the first to show what we all recognize now, that if Britain is supreme at sea she has little to fear.

Alfred makes a Navy.

ENGLAND
as divided between
Alfred and the Danes
886.
SCOTS
IRELAND
STRATHCLYDE
LOTHIAN
CUMBRIA
BERNICIA
Jarrow
Wearmouth
Streonshalh
Man
HUMBRE
York
Manchester
THE FIVE
BOROUGHS
Thelwall
Bakewell
Lincoln
GWYNEDD
Chester
Derby
Nottingham
Leicester
Stamford
POWYS
Tamworth
Bridgenorth
ENGLISH
MERCIA
Warwick
Towcester
Bedford
Tempsford
St. Edmundsbury
ANGLIA
Witham
WALES
GWENT
Gloucester
Oxford
Hertford
London
Chippenham
Reading
Merton
Canterbury
I. of Thanet
Wedmore
Ashdown
Ethandun
WESSEX
Winchester
Athelney
Wilton
Wareham
Exeter
Hengistesdun

Alfred deserves to be remembered for what he did to keep his realm safe; yet no less honour is due for what he did to make it well-governed. He set in order the laws, and took such good care that they should be kept, that in later days, when troubles came again, men longed for the "laws of King Alfred". He was a scholar, and wished to teach his people. He desired that every freeborn youth "should abide at his book till he can well understand English writing". In order that they should have books to read, he himself translated books for them—books on religion, on geography, on history; and he caused to be written, and perhaps himself helped to write, the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*. Thus, as Caedmon is the father of English poetry, Alfred is the father of English prose.

Alfred as a Lawgiver and a Teacher.

In 901 Alfred died, but his work did not die with him. His son, Edward the Elder, reconquered the Danelagh as far as the Humber. His grandsons restored the Saxon power over Northumbria, and even induced the Scots to accept the Saxon king as father and lord. Thus England was again united under a Saxon king. The Danes had been beaten; they had settled down quietly under Saxon rule; they had intermarried with the Saxons, had grown like them in speech, and were hardly to be told as a separate race. All seemed well. It was hardly possible to imagine a better sign for the future than this, that Edred, the youngest of Alfred's three grandsons, was chosen king by a Witan in which Saxons, Welshmen, and Danes all sat peaceably side by side as members of one realm. But the Danish invasions were not yet over. Fresh troubles were not very far off.

Alfred's Sons and Grandsons, 901–955.

IV.—THE FALL OF THE SAXONS. ENGLAND UNDER FOREIGN RULE. DANES AND NORMANS.

Alfred himself stands out as the towering landmark of the period we have followed. But his greatness is apt to mislead us. He does not stand alone. He is only one of a race of kings, all most capable rulers, who, were Alfred out of sight, might each deserve to be called a hero. It is not too much to say, that for nearly a hundred and eighty years (800–978) every king save one that sat on the throne of Wessex deserved to be called a great man; and, in addition, during the last forty years these kings had the advice of the greatest Saxon statesman —Dunstan. This is the Golden Age of Saxon England; but the period which follows offers a sad contrast.

The Great Saxon Kings.

It opens ominously with murder. The young king Edward, riding past his stepmother's castle at Corfe, halted at the door and asked for a cup of wine. The treacherous queen brought it herself, and while the king was drinking it, made one of her men stab him in the back, that her own son Ethelred might get the throne. For eight-and-thirty years England was to regret that deed, for Ethelred's reign proved one of the worst in her history.

Ethelred's name of the Unready or Redeless—that is to say, "The Man of Ill-Counsel"—aptly describes him. He was selfish, idle, weak. He allowed his nobles to quarrel among themselves. The Danes saw the weakness of the realm and began their raids afresh. Ethelred was foolish enough to reverse the plan which Alfred had followed with such success.

Ethelred, 978–1016.

Instead of hard blows he gave them shillings, and tried to buy them off with the Danegeld, a tax which he made his luckless subjects pay. This of course only attracted fresh swarms of Danes. One band followed another, all clamouring for Danegeld. Then Ethelred, having by his first act brought the Danes into England, made them lasting foes by his second. He had recourse to treachery. Suddenly, in a time of truce, he caused all the Danes on whom he could lay hands to be murdered. This "Massacre of St. Brice's Day" drew down on him the whole might of the Danish kingdom, for among the victims so foully slain were the sister of the Danish king, Sweyn, and her husband.

1002.

Ethelred, like all weak kings, was a prey to bad favourites. The man he chose as his friend was a prince of traitors—Edric. Almost the first act of this friend was to betray his master by persuading the Witan to offer the throne of England to the Danish king. London alone stoutly held out for Ethelred, till it heard that the miserable man had deserted his post and had fled to Normandy. The nation then made Edmund, his son, king. He was young and brave, as his name "Ironside" tells us, and might have driven out Canute, who led the Danes. Five battles he fought, and was successful in them all; but in the sixth, Edric, who had come over to his side, deserted him again on the battle-field, and caused his defeat. Not content with that, a year later the traitor Edric got Edmund murdered, and in despair the nation chose the Dane Canute as their king.

Edric.

Thus all Alfred's work was overthrown. Yet Canute, though a foreign conqueror, was a good king. He ruled sternly, but fairly; he gave England the peace which was sadly needed. He married

Ethelred's widow, and so joined himself to the old royal family; he employed English and Danes alike; and he slew the treacherous Edric. He felt so certain of the loyalty of his new subjects that he was able to send home all his Danish army, save a small body-guard. This shows us that he was loved, just as the old story of his rebuke to the flattering courtiers who urged him to forbid the tide to come any farther, shows us that he was wise.

Canute the Dane, 1016–1035.

Neither of Canute's sons lived long, so that in 1042 the Witan had to choose a fresh king. The choice fell on Edward, second son of Ethelred the Unready.

Edward, the Confessor, as he was called, though a pious, well-meaning man, was destined to bring England under another foreign power. He had been brought up in Normandy, and he was much fonder of Normans than of his own subjects. He made a Norman Archbishop of Canterbury, and promoted others to be bishops and earls; worse than this, he had even given some sort of promise to William, the Duke of Normandy, that he would leave him the crown of England at his death. All this favouring of foreigners made Englishmen very angry.

Edward, the Confessor, 1042–1066.

When Edward died, leaving only a great-nephew of ten years old to follow him, the Witan, anxious for a strong ruler, and for one who would hate the Normans instead of favouring them, put Harold, son of the Saxon Earl Godwin, on the throne. But William of Normandy, as we have seen, had already been aiming at the crown. And further, unluckily for Harold, it had happened that he had once been wrecked on the coast of Normandy and thrown into prison. Before the duke would let him go, he had made him swear that he would do his best

Harold, 1066.

to get William chosen king on Edward's death. William now declared that Harold was false to his oath, and made ready an army of Normans to invade England and dethrone him.

English Disunion; Stamford Bridge.

Even at this fatal moment, while William was preparing his fleet and mustering thousands of soldiers, not from Normandy alone but from all parts of France, England was not united. Harold's brother Tostig, whom he had driven into exile, suddenly landed in Northumbria, bringing with him the King of Norway and a host of Norse warriors. Harold had to march north to fight them. He met them at Stamford Bridge and utterly defeated them. Tostig and the Norwegian king were both slain. The vast army which came in three hundred ships was so shattered that twenty-four were enough to carry it away.

It was a great victory, but it was Harold's last. While he was away the wind shifted from the north-west to the south, and Duke William was able to land with, it is said, a hundred thousand men at his back. "Had I been there," cried Harold, "they had never made good their landing." He hurried his army southward, but even now, with the enemy on English shore, Edwin and Morcar, Earls of Northumbria and Mercia, would not help him, but loitered behind till too late.

Battle of Hastings.

The battle that was to decide England's fate was fought near Hastings on the 14th October, 1066. Harold drew up his men on a hill, and strengthened his position with entrenchments. His soldiers fought on foot; his body-guard in the centre were armed mostly with two-handed axes or long swords, but on the wings he had some hastily-raised levies, some armed with clubs, some with

spears, some with scythes. The duke had a splendid force of mail-clad cavalry and a number of archers.

The Normans began the attack, but neither the arrows nor the charges of horsemen could shake the English. Man after man of William's best knights went down under the English axes. The day wore on towards afternoon, and still Harold held his ground. Had he had with him the warriors who had fallen at Stamford Bridge, or even the lingering forces of Edwin and Morcar, he might have won. But suddenly some of his ill-trained levies ruined him. The duke pretended to be retreating. Many of the English left their position to pursue the foe whom they thought beaten. William ordered his men to wheel about and charge. The English, caught in the open ground, were no match for the Norman cavalry, who cut them down with ease. Then William led his knights to a fresh charge on the body-guard who had stood firm by Harold. Although desperately outnumbered, these stood firm till Harold himself was mortally wounded by an arrow in the eye. Then at length the wall of shields was broken; the English guard were overpowered and slain where they stood; and as the sun was setting, Duke William found himself the victor.

Shakespeare has written—

> "This England never did—nor never shall—
> Lie at the proud foot of a conqueror
> But when it first did help to wound itself".

The period of English history which we have followed in this chapter gives us a striking example of this. Twice in ninety years was England at a conqueror's feet. It was not for want of valour. None could be braver than Edmund Ironsides or

Harold. None could do more than give their lives for their country, and the English army at Hastings poured out its blood like water for its king. It was not the open enemy that was to be feared, but the familiar friend; not the Dane or Norman, but the recreant Englishman. The falseness of Ethelred, the treachery of Edric, the rebellion of Tostig, the half-heartedness of Edwin and Morcar—these were the true causes of the Saxon downfall.

V.—NORMANS AND ENGLISH: FEUDALISM.

William I., 1066–1087.

After the battle of Hastings William marched slowly towards London. He might have expected that the country of Alfred and Edmund Ironside would not submit after one defeat only. But the English were still quarrelling among themselves. And so, though the Witan chose Edgar Atheling, the grandson of Edmund Ironside, to succeed Harold as king, yet in a short time they found it hopeless to resist further. An embassy, with Edgar himself at the head of it, came to William and offered him the crown. Thus William was able to say that he ruled, not as a conqueror, but as the lawful king, elected by the Witan.

William offered the Crown by the Witan.

This was a great advantage, but William was still in a very difficult position. He had two things to do: the first, to subdue the English thoroughly; the second, to keep his own Norman followers contented and obedient, to reward them, and yet not make them so strong that they could revolt against him. He had, in fact, to keep himself master of both Normans and English alike.

His first stroke was to declare that all those who had fought against him at Hastings were rebels, and that their estates were forfeited to him. Thus he became master of almost all the land in the south of England; and when in later years the English in the north and west rebelled against him, he punished them by taking away their lands also. These vast estates he used to reward his Norman followers. And even when an Englishman's estates were not taken from him, he was obliged to pay a large fine, and to admit that the land was really the king's and not his own; that he was the king's tenant and vassal, and therefore bound to serve him.

To keep down the English.

Thus was set up in England what is called the "Feudal System". To understand this we must fix our eyes upon the land, for the land was the basis of it all. The king at the head was the owner of all the land. He granted large estates to his nobles and barons, who were called tenants-in-chief, and who were bound by these grants of land to fight for the king if he called on them to do so. The tenants-in-chief in their turn granted parts of their estates to their followers, who were also bound in their turn to obey the tenants-in-chief as their superiors. And below all classes of free tenants were a vast number of serfs who had very small holdings of land, some five, ten, twenty, or thirty acres, and who had in return for this to work upon their lord's land, and to cultivate it for him.

Feudal System; Land.

Thus all men were divided into ranks. We may think of it all as a sort of pyramid; hosts of serfs at the bottom owing obedience to their lords who held the land; next a large number of minor tenants owing obedience to the tenants-in-chief; and then a small

number of tenants-in-chief, the earls and barons, owing obedience to the one king at the top. It was the land which bound them all together. Everyone had rights or duties which depended on the way he was connected with the land. The king was the master of all because he was master of all the land; the barons were his "vassals", subject to him, because they held his land; but they were lords over the serfs, because these did not hold land as freemen at all.

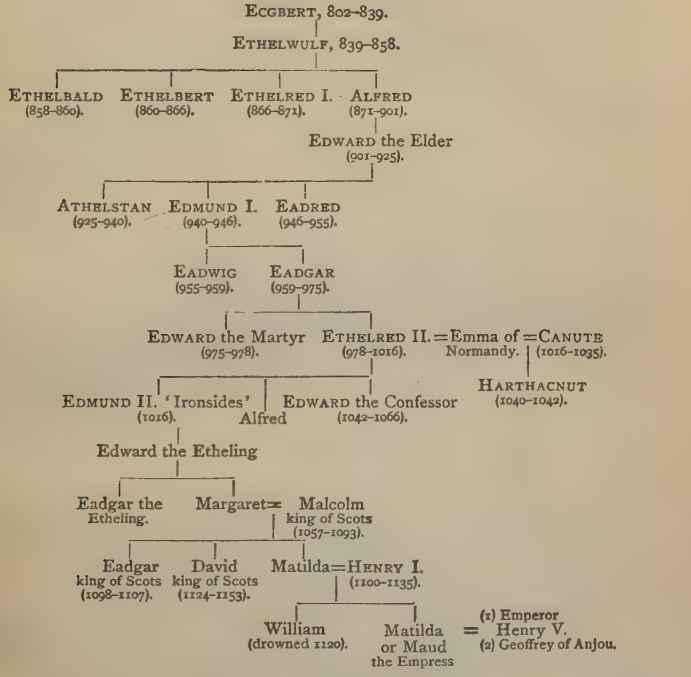
It is easy to see that the English came off badly in this arrangement. As the Norman friends of the king were put at the top, the English naturally sank to the bottom. Those who in days before the Conquest had been free, though they were owners only of very small estates, now found themselves reduced to being serfs, or, as they were sometimes called, villeins.

Many English become Serfs.

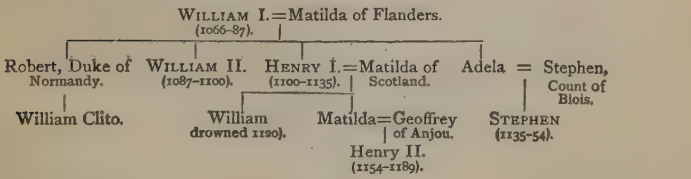
We must see what this meant for them. In the first place, they were no longer free. They were bound to the land and could not leave it. They were forced to work three or four days in each week on their lord's estate, without being paid for doing so. They could not give their daughters in marriage without their lord's leave. And beyond all this, they were in his power. He could punish them almost as he chose by fining them, or causing them to be flogged, and they could not get any redress. This was bad enough, but it was made worse by the fact that their lords were almost always foreigners. The Normans despised the English. They called them "dogs of Saxons", and treated them worse than dogs. They did not understand the English tongue, and paid no attention to what the English said or felt. William might pretend that he had, after all, only taken the place of Harold on the English throne, but

Serfs.

THE HOUSE OF ECGBERT.



THE ANGLO-NORMAN KINGS.



to the English he was indeed a conqueror, and a very hard conqueror as well.

The English might think their new position a bad one, and so indeed it was, but it might have been worse; we shall see that it became so when the strong hand of William and his sons was removed. The fact was that William ruled sternly, but he ruled all alike. He had been himself a feudal vassal before he became a feudal king. As Duke of Normandy he had been so strong in his own dominions that he could disobey his superior, the King of France, altogether. He was not willing to let his barons be as troublesome to him in England as he himself had been to the King of France. So he did three very wise things.

William keeps a strong rule over the Barons.

First: He had to give his barons much land, but he gave them it in scattered estates, not all together. Thus, if a baron wished to rebel against the king, he could not collect his forces in one place; and he had always jealous neighbours round him, who would keep a watch on what he did.

Secondly: William assembled all his tenants at Salisbury, and made them swear that they would obey the king first and their lords after; thus, if some lord wished to lead an army of his followers against the king, they would reply that their first duty was to obey the king.

Oath at Salisbury.

And thirdly: William caused a great inquiry to be made, in which was set down all the land of England and who owned it, and what it was worth, so that he might know exactly what was due to him, and so that no one should be able to dispute over it. This inquiry was called the Domesday Survey, and it was so thorough, that it even tells

Domesday.

us how many villeins, and oxen, and sheep, and pigs, and mills, and fish-ponds there were on every estate in England. Many people thought it was unworthy of a king to inquire into things like these. One writer says "it is shame to be telling of, but he did not think it shame to be doing it". William, however, did not feel any shame in finding out all about his kingdom, in order to rule it well.

William's Troubles.

Yet with all the care he took William could not escape trouble. The English rebelled against him, and his Norman barons rebelled against him, and even his eldest son allied himself with the King of France against him. So William spent much of his time in fighting, which was after all what he loved best. For kings and barons in those days thought that the chief business of life was fighting. They despised those who stayed peaceably at home. At last, as William was watching his men burn the French town of Mantes, the horse on which he was riding was frightened by a blazing beam which fell near it, and reared. The king was thrown so hard against the pommel of his saddle that he suffered injuries of which he died a few days after.

William II., 1087–1099.

William II., who is called Rufus—the Red—from his appearance, was a stern, hard man like his father, but far less just. He made his chancellor, Ranulf Flambard, take much money from his people, who got to hate him and his chancellor; and indeed the next king put Ranulf Flambard to death. William Rufus quarrelled also with the Church. It happened that he fell ill, and as he thought he was dying, he wished to try to atone for his sins; so he appointed Anselm to the Archbishopric of Canterbury, a see which he had been keeping vacant in order to get its revenues for him-

Quarrel with Anselm.

self. Anselm was a good, gentle monk, and to those who brought the news of his appointment he said, "Will you couple me, a poor weak old sheep, to that fierce young bull the King of England?" Yet when he was once made archbishop, he soon showed that he would not submit to the king when the king was acting wrongly. He refused to pay the king for giving him the archbishopric, and rebuked him for his ill-deeds so sharply, that at last the king grew furious, and would have murdered him had he dared. So, having provoked his subjects and his barons and the Church by his severity and greediness after money, he was not regretted when he was killed by an arrow while hunting in the New Forest.

Henry I., who followed Rufus, was also a strong king, and not a merciful one. He kept his elder brother, Duke Robert of Normandy, in prison till he died. Once when he thought the men who coined his money were cheating him, he ordered the right hand of every one of them to be cut off. His barons rebelled against him, but he always overcame them. He kept such strict order in England that he was called the Lion of Justice. This alone would have made his English subjects like him, but they were still more pleased when he married Matilda of Scotland, who was descended from the old kings of Wessex. The Norman barons laughed at the king, who, they thought, was lowering himself by marrying a Saxon, one of the race they despised. They nicknamed the royal pair "Farmer Godric and his cummer Godgifu". But when a Norman king could marry a Saxon wife, it was clear that the two races would not remain separated much longer.

Henry I., 1099–1135.

VI.—THE WORST EVILS OF FEUDALISM, AND THE RESTORATION OF ORDER.

In the last chapter we have seen England conquered, we might even say enslaved. It seems strange that after the first few years the English made no effort to get free. It was the Norman barons who made the rebellions. "But", we are tempted to ask ourselves, "if the people hated a king as they hated William Rufus, why did not they combine with the barons to drive him out?" It would have been easy, of course; why was it not done? The answer is, that Englishmen feared the Norman barons much more than they disliked the king. And they were right. Rufus might be bad, but a rule of the barons would be far worse.

People want the King to be strong.

Henry I.'s son had been drowned as he was trying to save his sister from off the wreck of the *White Ship*, which a drunken steersman had run on the Casquets. The king wished to secure the throne for his daughter Maud, and during his lifetime had made his barons swear to be faithful to her. But Maud had married Geoffrey of Anjou, who was hated as a foreigner. And, besides, no one then ever thought a woman to be a fit person to rule the kingdom. Thus, when Henry died the barons made Stephen king.

Maud.

Stephen was a grandson of William the Conqueror, so he had some claim. He was also, the chronicler tells us, "a mild man", so that it might be hoped that he would make a good king. But the throne was no place for a mild man at this time. What was wanted was a strong man who could keep order.

Stephen, 1135-1154; his Character.

Stephen gained his crown by the help of the barons and the Church; but soon he fell out with both, and to add to his troubles Maud landed with an army and laid claim to the kingdom. Then began a long civil war, which went on up and down the country, now one side winning, now the other. At one time Maud's forces beat Stephen, and took him captive. So she for a time became ruler of England; but she was so haughty that her friends soon deserted her, and then the war began afresh. At another time, in the depth of winter, Stephen had Maud closely besieged in Oxford. She only escaped by dressing herself all in white, slipping out at night by a postern-gate, crossing the Thames on the ice, and fleeing across the snow. Then she gathered fresh forces and fought again.

Civil War.

The fact was that the war went on because the barons had no wish to stop it. When there was a dispute about the succession the king was sure to be weak, and the barons could do as they pleased. Thus, in Stephen's reign England learnt what it really meant when the country was left to the mercy of feudal barons. The chronicler of the time describes what they did. "They built castles, and filled them with devils and evil men. They hanged up men by the feet, and smoked them with foul smoke. Some were hanged up by their thumbs, others by the head, and burning things were hung on to their feet. They put knotted strings about their heads, and writhed them till they went into the brain. They put men into prisons where adders and snakes and toads were crawling, and so tormented them. Some they put into a chest, short and narrow and not deep, that had sharp stones within, and forced men therein, so that they broke all their bones."

Cruelties of the Barons.

When Stephen brought over foreigners from abroad to fight for him, these behaved even worse, sacking, burning, spoiling wherever they went. "Men said that Christ and his saints slept." The poor were reduced to misery; many of them whose huts had been burnt died of cold and hunger in the fields. It is no wonder that the nineteen years of Stephen's reign were known as the "nineteen long winters".

Henry II., Maud's son, who succeeded Stephen, had no light task to restore order again. The first thing to be done was to tame the barons. In their castles they had been able to defy their enemies; Henry had their castles pulled down. Since they had held their own law-courts, it had often been impossible for the king's subjects to get justice; Henry limited these courts, and enforced the system of his grandfather Henry I., who had sent his own travelling justices on circuit round the country to bring all under the king's law, in the same way as the justices go round now to the Assizes. Henry II. also began the use of a jury—that is to say, a body of men who were to say whether in their opinion a man was guilty of a charge brought against him. He drove out the cruel foreign soldiers who had tortured and plundered the people. He took back by force all the crown lands which the weak and foolish King Stephen had parted with. He prevented barons from coining their own money, and he put an end to private war; that is, to one baron attacking another with a private army on account of some private quarrel.

Henry II., 1154–1189, restores order.

Henry was determined to be master in his own kingdom; and his people backed him up, because they saw that many masters, such as the barons, were

far harder to serve than one king. But there was another body in England besides the barons which was growing much too powerful. This was the Church. It was the Church, led by Stephen's brother, Henry of Winchester, which had put Stephen on the throne. When Stephen quarrelled with the Church, it was mainly by its influence that he had been dethroned, and Maud made Lady of England in his place. It was the Church, again, that had brought about the treaty which ended the war, and had given the throne to Henry II.

Power of the Church.

Besides this there was another thing which displeased the king. William the Conqueror had given leave for churchmen to be tried in the Church's own courts under the law of the Church. This meant that there were two systems of law in the country—the king's law and the Church's law, and they were very different. For example, a layman who committed a murder was hanged, but if a cleric committed a murder, all that could be done to him was to shut him up in a monastery, for the Church's courts had no power to give sentence of death; and men said that the Church courts often let off offenders very lightly. We might think that clerical murderers were rare, but the king's justices complained that since Henry's accession more than a hundred murderers had escaped justice on the ground that they were clerics. The truth was, that the term cleric included not only parish priests and monks, but all who were engaged in any way in the service of the Church; and some of these led evil lives.

Churchmen and the Law.

To bring the Church more under his power, Henry made his chancellor, Thomas Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury. Becket and the king had been great

friends. We are told "they would play together like boys of one age", and Henry no doubt thought that a careless courtier, as Becket seemed, who wore gay clothes and hunted and jested, would be ready to do what his friend the king wished in Church matters. Becket.

The king was mistaken. As soon as Becket was made archbishop he changed his life altogether: he became solemn and pious. Instead of aiding the king he opposed him. His action seems cantankerous, but it was not so in reality. He feared that if clerics were put under the power of the ordinary law, they would lose much of their influence with the people. To do what Henry asked was in fact to weaken the power of the Church, and this as a churchman Becket honestly felt that he could not do. Accordingly when the king desired to have the clergy tried in the royal courts, Becket refused to agree. Henry flew into a rage, and drove Becket out of the kingdom.

For six years the quarrel continued. Then it was agreed that Becket might return if he would let bygones be bygones. But Becket did not keep to this; he began to interfere in what had been done in his absence. Henry was a very passionate man, who, when he was angry, would even fling himself down on the floor, and bite the rushes which were then used instead of carpets. On hearing what Becket had done, he cried out furiously, "Are there none of the cowards eating my bread who will rid me of this turbulent priest?" Four knights who heard him set off for Canterbury, followed Becket into the cathedral, and hewed him down with their swords as he stood by the steps of the altar. Becket Murdered, 1170.

Everyone was horrified at such a wicked murder, and thought that Henry was responsible for it. Becket was regarded as a martyr and a saint, although most of his life had been more remarkable for ambition than holiness. Men went on pilgrimage to his tomb, since it was believed that miraculous cures were wrought there. Even Henry himself, proud king as he was, went to the tomb, and bared his back to be scourged by the monks as a sign that he repented. But the evil effects of his own passionate words and his followers' barbarous action did not end here. The king had to give up his attempt to bring the clergy under the ordinary law; and three hundred years passed before clergy were made liable to be tried for crimes, and punished for them in the same way as ordinary men.

What we have to notice in the reign of Henry II. is the restoration of order in the country. The king strove to make all persons subject to the crown; to make the law supreme over all—powerful nobles and churchmen alike. In his first object he was successful, in the second he failed. But he failed, not because what he was attempting was unwise or unjust, but because he was put in the wrong by the foolish violence of those who thought they were helping him.

VII.—ENGLISH KINGS ABROAD. RICHARD THE CRUSADER.

Henry II.'s Foreign Dominions.

Henry II. was a great restorer of law and order in England; we think of him as the strong king who saved his people from the harsh rule of feudal barons. But to men of his own day, that was very far from being the most

IRELAND
SCOTLAND
ULSTER
The Pale
Dublin
Cashel
Wexford
Cork
Waterford
St. Davids
NORTH WALES
Chester
Gloucester
Oxford
Alnwick
York
Lincoln
Northampton
Fornham
London
Canterbury
Clarendon
Exeter
England
Rouen
Vexin
Chateau Gaillard
Normandy
Paris
Brittany
Maine
KINGDOM
Sens
Pontigny
Colombieres
Anjou
Tours
Poitou
FRANCE
Chaluz
Bordeaux
Aquitaine
Toulouse
The Dominions of HENRY II. about A.D. 1180.
Countries ruled directly by Henry II. shewn white.
Countries vassal to Henry II. shaded thus:-.....

remarkable thing about him. To them he was a great king, who owned wider dominions than ever a king of England had ruled before. The greater part of Wales owed him obedience; and one of Henry's barons named Strongbow had crossed into Ireland, and had made most of the Irish chieftains submit to him, so that Henry ruled over the Pale, the district round Dublin, and was in name king of the rest of Ireland too. Then he was successful in his wars against the Scots. His soldiers had captured the Scottish king, William the Lion, at Alnwick, and Henry did not allow him to go till he had done homage for his dominions; that was intended to show that the Scotch king held his kingdom as a grant from Henry. Thus Henry might claim to be lord also over Scotland. But beyond all this he ruled over more of France than the French king himself; he was master of the whole of the west coast of France, from the English Channel to the Pyrenees.

We noticed the marriage of Henry I. with a Saxon princess as a sign that Saxons and Normans were beginning to think of themselves, not as two separate races, but one people. In Henry II.'s reign the union became more complete. The two languages were mingling into one. From the mixture of Norman-French and the Saxon speech we get our own tongue. It is curious to think that, just at this time when the races were uniting to form England, our kings were growing more and more foreign, and more and more occupied with affairs outside England.

This seems all the more strange, because Henry's son, Richard I., is often taken as the type of a Briton. His very name—the "Lion-heart"—makes us think of the British Lion. His strength, his daring against odds, his rough good-nature, his

Richard I., 1189–1199.

love of adventure, all are marks of what we are proud of in Britons to-day. And yet this typical king is, in a way, more of a foreigner than any other king who has ruled over us. Out of his reign of ten years he only spent seven months in England. Yet, even if Englishmen did not see much of their king, he showed the world outside what an English king could do, and he made the name of our nation renowned among all the best warriors of Europe.

As soon as he came to the throne he made up his mind to join the great army of Crusaders that had set out to deliver the Holy City, Jerusalem, from the Saracens. To get money to pay his men he let off William the Lion from the duty of giving the homage which Henry II. had won. We shall see by and by how important this became. But for the present Richard was ready to sell anything. He even said in joke: "I would have sold London itself if I could have found a rich enough buyer".

Richard's Crusade.

When Richard reached the Holy Land he found the Crusaders doing very badly. They were trying to take Acre, but were making no headway with the siege. With Richard once on the spot all was changed. The Lion-heart soon showed that he deserved his name. He was always foremost in the attack, risking his life like a common soldier, but fighting with ten times the vigour. In three weeks Acre was taken. Duke Leopold of Austria planted his banner on the walls of it as if he had taken it himself. Richard was not the man to allow the glory to be stolen from him. He ordered the German banner to be cast into a ditch, and put his own in its place. But this act offended Leopold very much, and Richard had to pay for it later.

In the meantime, however, all the Crusaders fol-

lowed him as the best leader, and he defeated the Saracen hosts in two great battles. Yet he never captured Jerusalem, because the French king went home with his men, and left Richard with too small an army to do anything. He got within sight of the Holy City, but he could not bear to look at it. "My eyes", he cried, "shall never behold it, if my arm may not reconquer it." With that he turned back.

Richard's Captivity.

Then, hearing that his brother John was plotting to take the throne of England from him, he started homewards. His ship, however, was wrecked, and he was cast ashore in the domain of the very Duke of Austria whose flag he had insulted at Acre. Leopold kept him in prison for a time, and then sold him to the Emperor, Henry VI., and he too kept him captive. It was said that his prison was discovered by a minstrel named Blondel, who passed outside singing a song of Richard's own, and Richard answered by singing the song again.

After some delay the king was ransomed, and returned to England. There he found that John had been asserting that he was dead, and was trying to make himself king in his place. But everyone hated John, who was mean and cunning and cruel; and they were delighted to welcome Richard again. Richard was too good-natured to punish John. He despised him too much to be afraid of him.

Richard's death was much like his life. No sooner was he home than he began a war with the King of France, who was trying to get for himself the districts in France which belonged to the English crown. At last, while besieging the castle of Chaluz, Richard was struck by an arrow in the neck. The archer who shot it was brought before the dying king. Richard bade his officers send him away unharmed. It is sad

to think that they did not obey the orders, but had the unlucky man flayed alive.

Richard was succeeded by his brother John, who was a very different kind of man. He could not keep his possessions in France, as Richard had done, by dint of hard fighting. He was too lazy and careless. Besides, he was so treacherous that all disliked him, and few cared to fight for him. He captured and put to death his boy nephew Arthur, a deed which made everyone shrink from him. So Philip the French king had little difficulty in reconquering all John's land in France except a small piece in the south, and thus John's nickname of "Lackland", given him by his father years before, doubly fitted him.

John, 1199–1216.

Loss of French Possessions.

John's failure to keep his French possessions had great results in the history of our kingdom. So long as our kings were rulers over half of France as well as over England, they were inclined to pay little attention to English affairs; yet when these dominions oversea were lost, the king had to become an English king in reality as well as in name, and do what his subjects wanted. We shall see in the next chapter that the people of England made John, who was the worst king England has ever known, give them something which has been of more importance than anything else in the whole of our history.

VIII.—MAGNA CARTA; AND THE MAKINGS OF PARLIAMENT.

John, now forced to stay at home in England, soon succeeded in disgusting everyone by his behaviour. First of all he wanted to appoint a friend

of his as Archbishop of Canterbury. But Pope Innocent III. thought John's friend unworthy and chose Stephen Langton. John flew into a furious rage and swore he would never receive Langton. Innocent, however, would not give way either, and first he excommunicated John, and then put the realm under an interdict: that is to say, he forbade all services; the churches were closed; even the dead could not be buried in consecrated ground. Then, as John was still obstinate, the pope invited the King of France to send over an army to put him off the throne. At last John gave way. In sign that he submitted he even gave up his crown to Pandulf, the pope's legate, and received it back from him as a gift from the pope. Every Englishman was ashamed of a king who could demean himself in this way.

John and the Pope.

John continued to govern so badly that something had to be done. Accordingly Stephen Langton and the barons held a great meeting, to which they invited representatives from every shire to come and declare their grievances against the king, and consider what should be done to restrain him. John tried to collect forces, but he could do nothing. He had not to resist the barons alone; he had to meet the clergy, the knights, and the citizens of the towns as well. Indeed, everyone was united against him, and he had to give way. He met the barons at Runnimede, and there he signed Magna Carta, the greatest charter of English liberties.

Magna Carta, 1215.

We must notice particularly two things to which the king bound himself.

(1) He was to take no tax except by common consent of the realm; and this consent was to be given in the Great Council, to which not only the greater

barons and churchmen were to be summoned, but all those who held land from the king.

(2) No one was to be imprisoned or punished except after trial by his equals; and the charter adds, "to none will we sell, to none will we deny right or justice".

These safeguard two most important British rights: first, that the king may not take money, unless Parliament grants it to him; and secondly, that no man is to be punished without a trial, and that trial must be before a jury.

John signed the charter and promised to obey it; he gave his promise because at the time there was nothing else for him to do; and he gave it willingly, because from the first he had not the slightest intention of keeping it. The Struggle over the Charter. He got the pope to say that he was not bound by his oath, one of those pieces of papal interference that made Englishmen dislike the pope. In less than a year he and the barons were again at war. The barons even invited the French king's son into England to fight against John, and they offered him the crown, but the struggle was stopped for the time by John's sudden death.

The new king, Henry III., was a boy of nine years old, so until he grew up the barons in the Great Council were able to govern as they wished. Henry III., 1216–1272. But when Henry became a man, he took the reins of power into his own hands. In many ways he was very different from John. Instead of being clever and cunning and treacherous, he was weak and foolish. But he was like him in ruling badly. He trusted much to foreign favourites, and he spent a great deal of money in giving large sums to the pope for things that could do no possible good

to England. So by degrees men began to think that he too must be forced to govern better.

The leader of the party who wanted reform was Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, who had married the king's sister. Henry at first liked him. He had sent him to govern Guienne, the one province of France that still belonged to England. Simon was a good soldier and he had ruled it well, but Henry grew tired of him, and very meanly left Simon to pay from his own pocket the money which he had spent in the king's service.

Simon de Montfort.

Thus Earl Simon came home in disgust, and put himself at the head of the barons. They assembled in a Great Council, or, as we may now call it, a Parliament, for the word is first used in Henry III.'s reign, and arranged that all that the king did was to be overlooked by a committee of barons. The king promised to keep these "Provisions of Oxford" as they were called, but he was as false as John. He too got the pope to declare him quit of his oath, and so nothing was left for Simon and his party but to go to war. Each side gathered forces, and they met at Lewes. The king's army was bigger, but he lost the day because his son Edward pursued after some fugitives too far. When he returned Simon had won the battle. Both Henry and Edward were made captive.

Battle of Lewes.

Simon had no wish to seize the throne for himself; he only wanted to have the kingdom well governed, so he called a Parliament. It is this Parliament which gives Simon a title to be remembered for ever as one of the makers of the British constitution.

Simon's Parliament, 1265.

Hitherto the assembly which had helped the king

to govern England had consisted of barons and churchmen. But Simon was not content with this; he summoned as well two knights from each shire, and two citizens from each city. Here for the first time we have the appearance in Parliament of the men who now compose the House of Commons. Simon may be called the founder of this House.

Simon governed well, but he could not prevent the barons who should have supported him from growing jealous of his power. So after two years the king's party raised a fresh army led by Prince Edward. Simon was surrounded at Evesham and killed, fighting bravely in the midst of his followers.

Battle of Evesham: Death of Simon.

He had set a good example. He had summoned the first Parliament, which contained, as our parliaments do to-day, lords, county members, and borough members. But Simon was in a sense a rebel. It might be that no king would care to imitate what he had done; in this case nothing might have come of his experiment.

Curiously enough the man who followed Simon's example, and made his new scheme the regular rule for governing England, was the very one whom Simon regarded as his most bitter foe. The same Prince Edward, who had overthrown Simon at Evesham, adopted his measure when he became King Edward I. In 1295 he caused to be summoned a Parliament like Simon's Parliament, including knights of the shire and citizens from the towns; and by doing so he settled for ever the question of who should sit in Parliament. From this time onward no one would think that a Parliament was properly formed unless it included these representatives of the people. Thus

Edward I., 1272–1307.

Model Parliament.

Edward's Parliament of 1295 is always called the "Model Parliament", as it gave an example to all others to copy.

Of course Parliament of those days differed much from the Parliaments we know. It was one house, not two, for until Edward III.'s reign both lords and commons sat together. Now the commons are much the more powerful, but then the lords held the chief power. Now the monarch follows the wishes of Parliament in the choice of his ministers, then he did not consult its wishes. Now Parliament meets every year, then it met less often. But these are small differences. In nature Parliament of to-day is as it was then; it refuses to allow the king to take taxes, or to make laws without its consent; and on occasions we may find it putting out very great power. It could dethrone kings who governed badly. For instance, it assisted to depose Edward I.'s own son, Edward II.; and, eighty years later, it put Richard II. off the throne, and made Henry IV. of Lancaster king in his place. We cannot, indeed, say that it ruled England all the time, or that it undertook all branches of government as it does now; but whenever there was need to control a king, or to get rid of him, men looked to Parliament to perform the duty.

Powers of Parliament in the Fourteenth Century.

IX.—THE BEGINNINGS OF SCOTLAND.

Since it is during the reign of Edward I. that the affairs of England and Scotland become seriously entangled, it is convenient at this point to turn back and see what the kingdom of Scotland was, and how

it had been formed. We shall have to notice: (1) how the various kingdoms had come under one rule; (2) how the English language had spread in the country; and (3) in what way the kings of England had regarded it as a kingdom in some sense subject to them.

Four separate districts have gone to make up Scotland as it is now: the land of the Picts, which lay north of the Forth and Clyde, except Argyleshire; the kingdom of the Scots (originally an Irish people) in Argyleshire; the kingdom called Strathclyde, which stretched originally from the Clyde to the Ribble, inhabited by Britons—of this, however, only the northern part came into Scotch hands; and last, the district called Lothian, inhabited by Angles. This included the east coast of Britain from the Forth to the Tees, but here, as in the case of Strathclyde, the southern part has fallen to England and not to Scotland.

The Uniting of Kingdoms.

Union began with Kenneth MacAlpin, King of the Scots, who made himself ruler over the Picts also. This joined the two Celtic peoples, and though Kenneth's power was certainly very slight in the far north, and only reached in the south to the Forth and Clyde, we have here the beginnings of Scotland, or Alban as it was called then. The next step on the part of the kings of Scotland was to spread their authority over the kingdom of Strathclyde. These Strathclyde Britons, were, however, also attacked by the English in the south. Hence English and Scots came into conflict, each claiming to be rulers over Strathclyde. At last Edmund of Wessex found it wiser to make friends with the Scots than to wage war against them as well as against the Danes, so

Kenneth MacAlpin, 843.

Strathclyde.

he made an alliance with Malcolm I. and gave up to him Strathclyde. It was not very clear that it had ever been his to give, for the English authority had never been firmly established there; but in any case the northern part of Strathclyde was joined to the Scottish dominions, and by 1018 the King of Scotland was also king there.

Lothian.

The last region to be added to the others was Lothian. Lothian was at first part of the Saxon kingdom of Northumbria. Then it passed into Danish hands. When Alfred's grandsons again subdued the Danish powers in the north, it was doubtful to whom it should belong, for the King of Scotland had by this time seized Edinburgh and was laying claim to the country round it. Dunstan, who was minister to King Edgar, saw that it would be very hard for his master to hold a province so far north, and by his advice Edgar gave Lothian to Kenneth II. This was much like the gift of Strathclyde. Lothian had once been under English power; it was English in speech, and the city of Edinburgh got its name from a long-dead Northumbrian king by name Edwin. But it had passed from Saxon hands, and Edgar's "gift" was practically a surrender of what would be a great trouble to keep. Some fifty years later Lothian was again ceded to Malcolm II. by an Earl of Northumbria after a great battle won by Malcolm at Carham in 1018, so that henceforward Lothian clearly formed part of Scotland. It is worth note that this was the same year which saw the death of the last king of Strathclyde.

Lothian was the last possession to be gained; it was also much the most valuable. It was more fertile, it was more civilized, and it was Saxon in

law and speech. We must now notice how this speech spread over all Scotland save the Highlands, and how after Scotland had subdued Lothian, Lothian in its turn subdued Scotland.

Spread of English Speech.

This is best seen in the main events of the reign of Malcolm III. (Canmore), the son of that Duncan who was murdered by Macbeth; the story is familiar to us from Shakespeare's play. Malcolm had spent fourteen years in Eng-

Malcolm Canmore, 1057–1093.

land, and knew English speech as well as he did his own; and he married Margaret, sister of that Edgar Atheling whom the Witan chose as King of England after Harold's death at Hastings. Margaret was a very remarkable woman. She was learned and pious, and her husband loved her much and followed her advice in many things. As was natural, she wished to see things done as she had seen them in England. Thus she persuaded the Scottish Church to fall in with the customs of the Roman Church, just as the English Church had done at the Synod of Whitby, four hundred years before; and in whatever she did she spread English customs and English speech.

Margaret.

This was not liked by the Celts, and after Malcolm's death the Celtic party set up Donald Bane, a Celt, as king, drove out the English-speaking officials, and tried to return to the old ways. For a time it seemed likely that Scotland might be divided into two—a Celtic-speaking kingdom north of the Forth, and an English-speaking kingdom south of it; but at last Edgar, son of Malcolm Canmore, overcame Donald Bane and his Celtic party. The army with which it was done, however, was largely aided by Normans, who came from Rufus' dominions in search of adventures and estates. When the war was over they remained in the Lowlands, and thus, in addition to its Saxon blood, the south of Scotland has a mixture of Norman blood and Norman names. Many of Bruce's supporters were Norman in race, as their names show. Lindsay, Ramsey, Wishart, Maxwell, Umfraville, are all Norman names. Indeed, Bruce himself bore a Norman name.

English Speech and Customs.

Thus the marriage of Malcolm with Margaret led to the supremacy of the English-speaking race in

Scotland over the Celtic. But it had other results too. Malcolm, as a relative of the old kings of England, became an enemy of William the Conqueror. Hence we have a fresh reason for wars between England and Scotland. Indeed, it was while invading England that Malcolm was slain. His youngest son, David, patched up these quarrels for a time, since it was his sister Matilda who married Henry I. But David, although King of Scotland, was also a Norman baron. He held two earldoms in England. He was the first man to take the oath to put Henry I.'s daughter, Matilda, on the throne. Consequently we find him taking part in the wars of Stephen's reign. Like many others, he could not resist the temptation of fishing for himself in troubled waters. And though he was defeated in the Battle of the Standard, where the English stood firm round the great chariot that bore the banners of St. Peter of York, St. John of Beverley, and St. Wilfrid of Ripon, and threw off the wildest charges of the Scots, yet David managed to get Stephen to give him Northumberland, Durham, Cumberland, and Westmoreland.

David, 1124–1153.

Battle of the Standard, 1138.

Henry II., however, looked on this just as he looked on the rest of Stephen's actions, and he did not intend to be bound by it. He made Malcolm IV., David's successor, restore the four counties, and when he captured William the Lion, compelled him to do homage for his kingdom. Richard I., as has been related, sold William his homage back again.

Treaty of Falaise, 1174.

Thus the whole relation between the two countries was in a tangle. The English kings had tried to make out some claim to be lords over the kings of Scotland. They could point to gifts of territory and to acts of homage. On the other hand, the kings of

Scotland could say that these gifts really implied nothing; that the homage was for English earldoms which they held, and not for their Scotch dominions; and that if any homage was due for Scotland itself, Richard's bargain had cancelled it. Yet so far there was no national enmity between the two. They did not glory in being different races. They fought indeed at times, now one side winning, and now the other. Yet even at the Battle of the Standard David of Scotland fought under the flag of the Dragon, the same sign as that which King Alfred had used, while a Robert Bruce, an ancestor of the Scottish patriot king, was in the English ranks. Scotland had not yet begun to think of England as a tyrant, nor did England look on Scotland as a rebel. This more bitter feeling was to spring from the doings of Edward I., to which we must next turn.

X.—AN EARLY GREAT BRITAIN AND ITS FAILURE.

We have seen Edward I. give England a Parliament in which all classes were represented—a Parliament that carried out the idea of a united English nation. But Edward was not content with this. He aimed at something much wider—a united British race.

His first effort was to join Wales to England. Piece by piece that country had been subdued, until the dominions left to the Prince of Wales included only the mountainous north-west corner of the country. Llewellyn, who was ruler there, refused to submit to the king. Edward led

Edward I. and Wales.

an army into Wales, and Llewellyn retired with his forces into the Snowdon range, feeling sure that the king could not follow him. Edward was much too wise to try. Instead of wasting his men among steep rocks, he blocked up all the passes, brought up a fleet to guard the coast, and starved Llewellyn out.

Llewellyn submitted, but he could not keep his word. Three years later he and his brother David raised a fresh rebellion. This failed also; the Prince himself was killed in a single combat with one of Edward's followers; David was captured and put to death by the king as a traitor. The whole country came into Edward's hands, and he showed that he meant to keep it by bestowing on his son the title of the Prince of Wales, a title ever since given to the eldest son of English monarchs.

Edward and Scotland; Union by Marriage.

Edward now turned to Scotland, and Scottish affairs at this time gave him an excellent chance. Since the reign of John the two kingdoms had been fairly good friends. The last two Scottish kings, Alexander II. and Alexander III., had both married English princesses, and now, on the sudden death of Alexander III., his granddaughter Margaret, daughter of the King of Norway, was left heir to the throne. Edward's plan was to unite the two kingdoms by a marriage between this Maid of Norway and his own son Edward, Prince of Wales.

No one can deny that the plan was good, always provided that it was to be wisely carried out. That the union of the two kingdoms has been of benefit to both is undoubted, and it is fair to think that it would have been as useful in 1286 as it proved to be in 1707; that it might well have been brought about by a royal marriage is obvious, for that, we know, is the

very way by which it was brought about. People felt this at the time, for the Scottish Estates wrote to Edward, "we on our part heartily consent to the alliance, not doubting that you will agree to reasonable conditions". Edward was very reasonable. In the Treaty of Brigham, which arranged the matter, it was laid down that Scotland was to retain her laws, rights, and liberties, and to remain a separate kingdom. Edward did not, it is plain, look for an immediate or complete union. The union of the crowns would be a good beginning; the rest would follow in course of time. Again we may notice that this was what actually did happen much later.

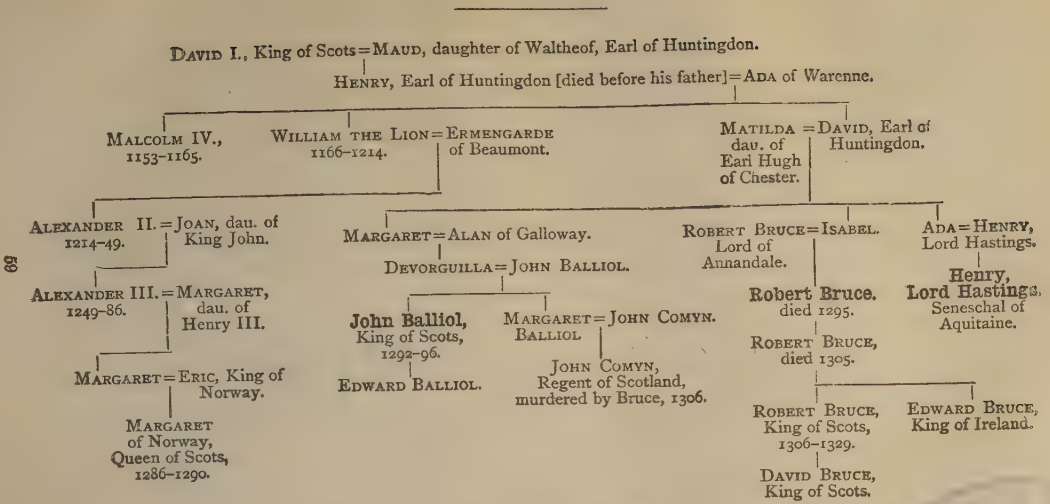
Unluckily all depended on the Maid of Norway, and she fell ill on the voyage from her father's country to Scotland, and had to be landed in Orkney, where she soon died. Thus Edward's scheme failed, and what was far worse, Scotland was left without an heir to the throne.

Death of the Maid of Norway.

Edward would have acted most wisely if he had recognized that the great chance had gone, and if he had given up any idea of further interference in Scotland. But he saw that his plan was still as good, though it was no longer so easy to carry out. And he was encouraged to go on, since the Scottish barons begged him to act as umpire between the rival claimants to the throne.

Englishmen are too ready to look solely at Edward's object, and to forget his unwise and afterwards violent methods; Scots sometimes only see the latter, and accuse the king of deliberate treachery in all he did. Edward thought of the old English claims over Scotland in the narrow spirit of a lawyer. The Scots urged that these had been sold. But questions of this kind cannot be decided in legal documents, or

THE SCOTS SUCCESSION.


David I., King of Scots = Maud, daughter of Waltheof, Earl of Huntingdon.
Henry, Earl of Huntingdon [died before his father] = Ada of Warenne.
Malcolm IV., 1153–1165.
William the Lion = Ermengarde of Beaumont. 1166–1214.
Matilda = David, Earl of Huntingdon. dau. of Earl Hugh of Chester.
Alexander II. = Joan, dau. of King John. 1214–49.
Alexander III. = Margaret, dau. of Henry III. 1249–86.
Margaret = Eric, King of Norway.
Margaret of Norway, Queen of Scots, 1286–1290.
Margaret = Alan of Galloway.
Devorguilla = John Balliol.
John Balliol, King of Scots, 1292–96.
Edward Balliol.
Margaret = John Comyn. Balliol
John Comyn, Regent of Scotland, murdered by Bruce, 1306.
Robert Bruce = Isabel. Lord of Annandale.
Robert Bruce. died 1295.
Robert Bruce, died 1305.
Robert Bruce, King of Scots, 1306–1329.
David Bruce, King of Scots.
Edward Bruce, King of Ireland.
Ada = Henry, Lord Hastings.
Henry, Lord Hastings, Seneschal of Aquitaine.

[The names of the three claimants are given in heavy type.]

haggled over as if they were merchandise. Edward had determined to be lord over Britain, cost what it might. Scotland was equally determined to be free. Thus if we argue about oaths and rights we are wasting our breath. Edward may have broken oaths, but Robert Bruce did the same. English troops harried and burnt, but Scottish troops were no whit behind them. We must judge men in times like these by what they felt to be their duty to their country, as things came before them, and not by what they had sworn.

When the Scottish barons met Edward at Norham there were ten candidates. Edward required them all to acknowledge him as lord paramount of Scotland, which they did. A court of eighty Scots and twenty-four Englishmen tried the question. John Balliol and Robert Bruce had the best titles. Balliol was chosen and placed on the throne.

Choice of Balliol.

The reign of John Balliol is always regarded as a disgrace alike to king and nation, but it is hard to see that Balliol could have done better. Edward took care, before he set him on the throne, to make him swear to be obedient to him. But the Scottish nation had not the slightest intention of allowing him to be obedient. So a quarrel at once broke out. A Scottish noble appealed to Edward against one of Balliol's decisions. Edward bade the Scottish king come to England to have the case decided there. It was clear that, if he refused, Edward would dethrone him; but if he obeyed, his own people would cast him out.

Balliol's Difficulties.

He refused to obey Edward, and Edward marched into Scotland with an army to subdue one whom he looked on as a rebel. He stormed Berwick, where the inhabitants were brutally massacred by his

soldiers; he defeated a Scotch army at Dunbar, the Scots rushing down to attack what they thought to be a retreating force and being themselves routed, and soon overran the whole country. Balliol was deposed, and Edward took Scotland for himself, setting up Warenne, Cressingham, and Ormesby as regents. Scotland as an independent kingdom seemed to have come to an end.

XI.—THE STORY OF SCOTTISH INDEPENDENCE. WALLACE AND ROBERT BRUCE.

No one had liked Balliol from the first. Yet when a king of England showed that he meant to conquer Scotland and make it part of his kingdom by force, the whole of Scotland determined to resist. Hitherto Edward had had, in the main, to deal with the Scottish barons; they, as we have seen, were largely Norman in blood. Now he had to encounter something quite different, the Scottish people in arms against him.

The hero round whom a national spirit gathered was Sir William Wallace. Wallace had engaged in a street brawl in the town of Lanark, had slain an English sheriff and had taken to the hills. He was joined by all to whom the English invaders were hateful, and soon found himself at the head of a considerable force. He advanced to meet the English near Cambuskenneth. Cressingham, who despised his enemy, tried to cross the Forth over a bridge so narrow that only two horsemen could ride abreast on it. Wallace attacked him when a third of his force

Wallace.

Battle of Cambuskenneth or Stirling, 1297.

was across, and routed him. Cressingham himself fell in the battle and his army scattered. All the fortresses fell, and the invaders were driven from Scotland. Wallace followed up this blow by leading an army into England and raiding the northern counties.

Edward was not the man to put up with this. He made up his mind to go to Scotland in person and crush Wallace. This did not seem easy. Wallace retreated, and Edward could not hear where the Scottish army lay. In the meanwhile he found it hard to feed his men, since the country had been laid waste around him. At last Wallace's situation was betrayed to him by two discontented Scottish nobles. Edward instantly set out by night, and came on Wallace near Falkirk before he had time to retire. Two charges of the English knights were beaten off by the Scottish pikemen, but then Edward brought his archers into action. The Scots were shot down without being able to reply, and at last a third and final charge broke the Scottish array. It is said that at least 15,000 Scots fell.

Battle of Falkirk, 1298.

For seven years Edward strove to complete his conquest. He led army after army into the country, but so long as Wallace was at large the resistance went on. At length, in 1305, Wallace was betrayed by some of his followers to Sir John Menteith, who was acting as Edward's sheriff in Dumbarton, and by him handed over to Edward. Menteith is generally called a traitor for this, and as a Scot he acted treacherously to his country. Still, he had taken Edward's side, was Edward's officer, and in capturing Wallace was so far doing his duty to the master he had chosen. Wallace was taken to England, and tried as a traitor

Capture and Death of Wallace.

to King Edward. He denied that he could be a traitor, since he had never sworn to obey Edward. But the king had him condemned. He was hanged, and his body, cut into four pieces, was fixed on the gates of Newcastle, Berwick, Stirling, and Perth. Edward meant to warn the Scots against further risings, but he made a great mistake. His cruel treatment of Wallace only made the Scots hate him the more.

With Wallace dead, Edward might think that Scotland was subdued. In a year the Scots had found a fresh leader. Robert Bruce, the grandson of him who had been Balliol's rival, started up in Wallace's place. Edward was thunderstruck to learn that Bruce had murdered Comyn, one of his regents, in the church at Dumfries, and had been crowned at Scone.

Robert Bruce.

Although Bruce was a king, he was a king without a kingdom or an army. His few followers were scattered in the battle of Methven, and Bruce had to flee to the Highlands. Even his countrymen sought his blood; the Lord of Lorn, a relation of Comyn, desired to avenge his murdered kinsman. Bruce, however, had great personal strength and good friends, chief of whom was Sir James Douglas, "the good Lord James". Still, so desperate were his fortunes that he had for a time to take refuge in the lonely island of Rathlin, near the Irish coast.

After a while he landed in Ayrshire, and fought numbers of small battles with the English forces. Often he was nearly captured or killed, but this continuous warfare taught his men to become good soldiers. One stroke of fortune befell Bruce, and that was the death of his old enemy, Edward I., while marching northward to invade Scot-

Bruce returns to Scotland.

land again. Even had Edward lived he could not have won in the end. He might have beaten Bruce, but he could not have conquered the Scottish nation and kept it down by force of arms. His plans, good as they were, had completely failed. He had wished to unite Scotland and England; all he had done was to divide them more deeply than they had ever been divided before.

When the old "Hammer of the Scots" was gone, Bruce soon found his son, Edward II., to be a feeble foe. His armies were badly led, his plans badly made. One by one the castles in Scotland were wrested from English hands. Douglas surprised Roxburgh; Randolph captured Edinburgh by sending a daring body of men to climb the castle rock; Binning seized Linlithgow by driving a wagon of hay under the gateway, so that the portcullis could not be let down. By degrees Bruce became master of the whole land. In 1310 the Scottish Estates met at Dundee, and declared that Bruce was their lawful sovereign; they would fight for him and none other.

Stirling Castle alone held out. In 1314 Edward II. led a huge army northward to relieve it. Bruce with far smaller forces determined to give battle. It was daring, for the English were two to one, but Bruce's men were now fine soldiers, confident and experienced. The armies met at Bannockburn. Bruce had guarded his flank by digging pitfalls to check the charge of the English knights, while the marshy ground by the burn side also served to protect him. Edward II. threw away every advantage that his numbers gave him. He allowed his archers to be driven off by a charge of Scottish horse; he sent his knights to charge full on

Battle of Bannockburn, 1314.

the Scottish pikes. He was fighting against men who were determined to conquer or die; men who were burning to set their country free, who were fighting to protect their homes, their wives and children, and to pay back the terrible wrongs they had

suffered. The Scottish pikemen stood like rocks in a storm, casting back the charges of English knights time after time; now seeming overwhelmed, then appearing again unbroken. The English attack was beginning to waver, and the Scots themselves advanced crying, "On them, on them; they fail", when a body of Scottish camp-followers were seen pouring down from the Gillies Hill. They seemed to be a fresh Scottish force, arriving to support their com-

rades. The English broke and fled in terrible confusion; in the rout 30,000 men were killed.

Bannockburn decided the question once for all. England could not conquer Scotland. But Edward II., too feeble to conduct a war properly, was too obstinate to yield. Through his reign the war went on. It was now the turn of the Scots. Bruce led his armies over the border, and pillaged the north of England. Edward could do little to check him. Indeed he could not keep his own barons in order; it was vain for him to hope to subdue the Scots.

Tired of him and his favourites, the English barons rebelled; Parliament declared him deposed, and Edward III. was put on the throne. He began to make war against the Scots with vigour, but he could gain no advantage over the invading Scottish army. He encamped opposite it, but its position was so strong that he dared not attack, and he himself was nearly slain. James Douglas led a night raid into the English camp, and actually got as far as the royal tent before he was driven back. Then the Scotch retreated in the night, leaving their camp-fires burning, so that the English did not perceive their going, and Edward was left with no enemy to fight.

Edward III.

He saw that it was useless to go on. In 1328 peace was made between the two nations, in which Bruce was recognized as lawful King of Scotland, and the King of England gave up all his claims. Scotland had triumphed.

Peace, 1328.

Robert Bruce's reign ended in 1329. For Scotland it was a memorable reign. Before its close he had obtained a mastery over all his foes at home and abroad. He had established the alliance between Scotland and France which was to lead to so much.

He had freed Scotland from the foreign invader. He had united it as it had never been united before. All alike were ready to obey him. The barons, Norman in descent and hitherto half-Norman in feeling, had becc me good Scotsmen and good patriots. In the fire of national trouble there had been welded a nation, firm, self-reliant, confident, proud of its race and of its king.

XII.—THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR. THE WORTH OF THE ENGLISH ARCHER.

The Hundred Years' War is the name given to the long struggle between England and France, from 1338 to 1453—roughly speaking, a hundred years. War indeed did not go on all the time. There were truces now and again. But, speaking generally, for a hundred years England and France were enemies. In following this long period of history, which covers the reign of five English kings, we shall find it convenient to fix in our minds some landmarks.

The war may be divided into two periods of great success and two periods of failure. The first period of success lies in the early part of Edward III.'s reign. We have the battles of Cressy and Poitiers, and the Treaty of Bretigny, in which the French king admits the English claim to the south-west of France; this is followed by a time of failure in the latter part of Edward III.'s reign and that of Richard II. The second period of success begins with Henry V. He outdoes the glory of Cressy and Poitiers by his victory of Agincourt; he marries the King of France's daughter and is called his heir; his infant son, Henry VI., is crowned King of France. But

Divisions in the Hundred Years' War.

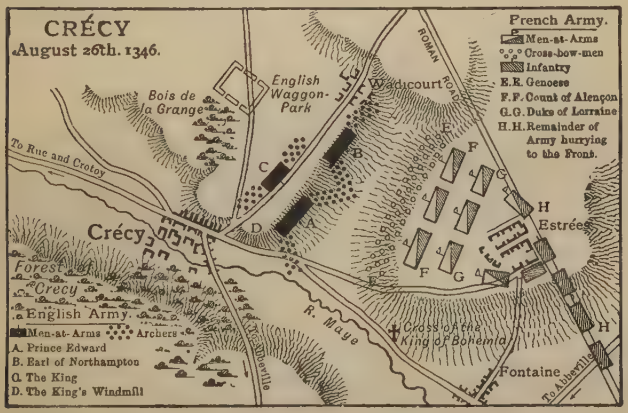
then comes the second period of failure. By degrees all was lost that had been won, till in 1453 nothing was left to England save Calais.

Edward III. and Henry V. are both victorious in their battles; they both claim the title of King of France, though neither had any right to it; they both rule large possessions in France; in both cases these dominions are at last recaptured by the French.

Our first task is to see why the English win the

great battles. It seems very strange, that at Cressy the French were four to one, at Poitiers seven to one, at Agincourt five to one, and yet they were hopelessly beaten in all three battles. Let us look more closely at the story of these battles.

Cressy was fought in 1346. Edward III. was re-

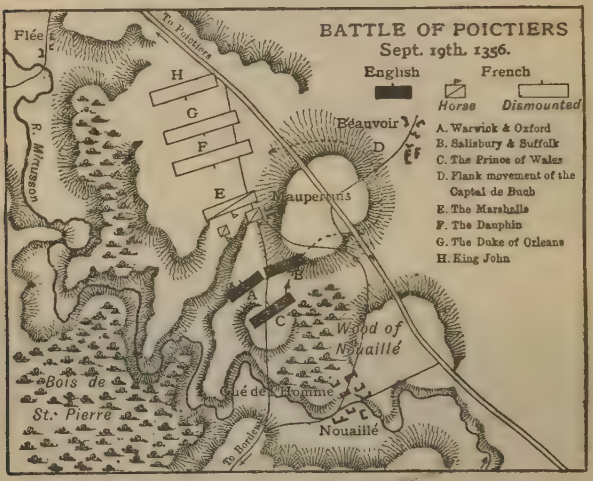


treating towards Calais after an unsuccessful march on Paris. He was caught up by the French, who numbered 70,000 men to his 20,000. He drew up his army with the archers in front and his knights, dismounted, behind. The shower of arrows first destroyed the crossbowmen in the French force; no wonder, for the English archer could shoot six arrows to his opponent's one. We are told "they shot so fast and so thick that it seemed as if it were snowing". Then the French knights charged, but men and horse went down under the English arrows so fast that only a very few reached the English line, and they were easily beaten off. And when this had gone on for

Cressy, 1346.

most of the day the remains of the French army fled. Edward III., who commanded the English reserve, had not struck a blow.

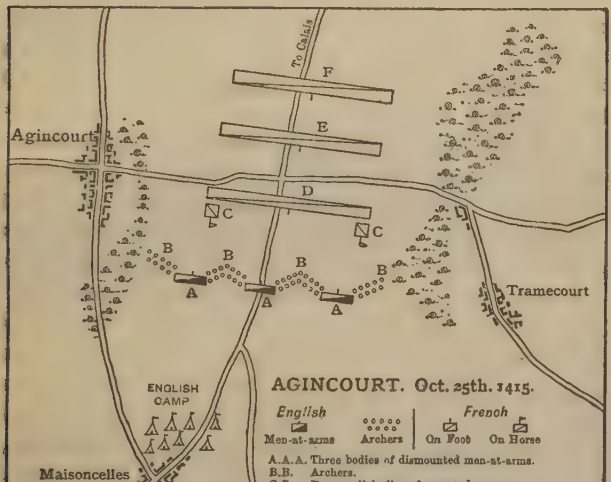
The hero of Poitiers was the Black Prince. He



had been raiding in France, but found his return cut off by 40,000 French soldiers under King John. He had only 7000 men with him, 3000 of whom were archers. He drew up his small force behind a hedge and awaited the French onset. This time most of the French attacked on foot, but met no better success than at Cressy. The archers kept up a steady discharge; the French ranks were broken ere they reached the hedge; they came on bravely, but the English slew each man as he came through a gap. One division of the French army retreating threw the next into disorder. Meanwhile the arrows poured down like hail, and the English

Poitiers, 1356.

bowmen, who drew their bowstrings to their ears, sent their shafts with force enough to pierce any but the best armour. At the end of the day the Black Prince led his own men to charge the last division of the French army in front, while a small body of



horse was sent round to take it in the rear. The French gave way in all directions; the French king himself was captured; and the English, with a loss of 300 men, found they had killed and captured almost as many Frenchmen as there were men in their own army.

The story of Agincourt begins like that of Cressy. Henry V. was making for Calais. The French barred his way. 6000 Englishmen, worn out by long marches, had to face 30,000 of the best knights in France. Henry placed some

Agincourt, 1415.

of his archers in front, and sent others to line the woods which covered the flanks of his small force on either side. The French had to advance across a muddy ploughland a mile in length. So heavy were the men in armour, and so sticky the mud, that as a body they never reached the English at all. A few managed to crawl up, but the great mass stuck, a splendid mark for the English archers. When it had been well riddled, the English charged. Being lightly armed and without armour, they could move freely where the enemy could not; and thus first the French vanguard, and then the main line, were overthrown and butchered, the dead actually lying two or three deep. The third division of the French army fled, though it alone far outnumbered Henry's entire force, being too terrified to stand an attack.

One fact stands out in all the battles. The English archers decided them. Not only could they shoot farther and faster than any crossbowmen, or French archers, but when properly backed they could stop heavy cavalry. The day of the knights in armour was over. Their charges, hitherto thought irresistible, could be broken by archers and steady infantry. The best missile weapons won. The same fact has been shown over and over again in the history of war. Just as the longbow beat the crossbow, so the musket has beaten the bow, the rifle has replaced the smooth bore, the breech-loader has triumphed over the muzzle-loader, and the magazine-rifle and the Maxim gun now hold the field, with increased range and rapidity of fire.

The English Archers.

Yet although England could beat the French in pitched battles, they were not numerous enough to hold the country. They could overrun it; the Duke of Lancaster could march

Reasons for English Failure.

across the south of France, and none dared meet him in battle. Yet when the French remained in their walled towns they were safe. In days when artillery was scarcely used, and was very cumbrous and short in range, sieges were long affairs, needing many men and costing many lives. Thus when the French had learned wisdom; when they risked no pitched battles, but fought behind walls; when they kept up a continual warfare of small parties, the English power drooped. Bit by bit Bertrand du Guesclin regained all that had been lost. When Edward III. died the English possessions had dwindled down to Bordeaux, a strip of Gascony, and Calais; in Richard II.'s reign the French even invaded England. They plundered the Isle of Wight, and for a time a French force was encamped in Sussex.

Henry V., we have seen, was more startlingly successful than Edward III. at his best, for his son was proclaimed King of France at Paris. Still, he had a much easier task. The French king, Charles VI., was little better than a madman. France itself was not united; it was divided up into two great parties, the Burgundians, headed by their duke, and the Orleanists or Armagnacs. So fierce were these factions against each other that they even descended to murder. First a Duke of Orleans, and then a Duke of Burgundy was treacherously slain by the other side. In the end the Burgundians, sooner than see the Armagnacs triumph, allied themselves with Henry V. Thus it is not England alone fighting against France. It is England, in alliance with one half of France, fighting against the other.

The Alliance of England and Burgundy.

Henry V.'s success, then, depended much on the

Burgundian alliance. He was strong because France was divided. But this could not last. Nothing, in fact, unites a country so speedily as foreign invasion. We have seen this already in Scotland. We may observe it again in France. By degrees Burgundians and Armagnacs came to see that they were both Frenchmen, to whom England was a deadly foe.

The task of rousing the French spirit fell to Jeanne Darc, commonly called in England Joan of Arc. She was a simple peasant girl, who believed that she was sent by Heaven to drive the English from France. Dressed as a soldier, she led the French soldiers to the attack. She entered Orleans, and drove off the English who were besieging it; then she won battle after battle. The English declared that they could not beat her. This was true, for she was backed by France growing united again. Even after Joan had been taken prisoner, and cruelly burned as a witch by the English, things went from bad to worse with our armies. Soon the Burgundians abandoned the English alliance, and then English power in France vanished for the last time. It is interesting for our purpose to notice that the first in the long series of English defeats, that of Beaugé, was mainly won for the French by a body of Scots. Here was one result of that alliance which lasted so long between England's two enemies. Pope Martin V., hearing of the share of the Scots in the victory, observed, "Truly the Scots are a cure for the English".

Jeanne Darc.

The Hundred Years' War practically brings to an end English efforts to gain territory on the Continent. That object abandoned, we shall see England turn to a new plan, namely, that of spreading her power at sea and in the New World. Before, however, she

had the opportunity to do this, she had to pass through a period of trouble at home, which was something like the trouble that she had profited by in France. She was torn to pieces by bloody wars for the crown. Fortunately no foreign invader came to England to make matters worse, as Henry V. had done for France.

XIII.—THE BLACK DEATH AND THE SERFS.

We have seen that the Norman Conquest left the class who cultivated the land in the position of serfs. They were bound to the land, and had to give their lord so many days' work each week, and certain extra days' work at the busy seasons of hay-making, harvest, and ploughing. As time went on, however, many of the serfs had come to an arrangement with their lords to pay money instead of service; for example, if a man's labour was reckoned at a penny a day, he would pay threepence a week if he had owed three days' work, and further pennies for extra days. The plan was convenient for both parties: the serf got more time to work on his own plot of land; the lord got money with which he could hire labourers, and was saved the trouble of continually striving to compel unwilling or lazy serfs to perform their services.

Commutation of Service.

This plan of "commuting" services for money was spreading gradually over the country, but it was not complete, when it was interrupted by a disaster. This was the Black Death, a fearful plague which ravaged our island from 1347 to 1350. At least one-third of the whole population perished. It

The Black Death.

is literally true that often the living could scarce bury the dead; for example, more than one case occurred where all the inhabitants of a monastery were cut off, or every member of a large family died, so that there was none left to inherit the land.

We have especially to look at the effects of this in the rural districts. It is plain that labour would become very hard to get; and, further, since at the height of the plague men were so terrified that they left the harvest to rot ungathered in the fields, corn became scarce. This caused a rise in prices; and as prices rose, and labourers were few, we should be prepared to find a rise in wages also. In fact, this is what happened. Wages rose sharply.

Rise in Wages.

This all hit the land-owners hard. To begin with, many of their tenants were dead, some without leaving heirs; and so they lost the payments for commuted service which these had owed. Further, what had paid for a day's labour in the days before the Black Death would no longer pay it after the rise in wages. It was a common complaint that whereas a woman's labour had cost ½*d.* a day, now it cost 2*d.* or 3*d.* Hence ruin stared the lord in the face if he had to receive at the old rates and pay at the new ones.

Difficulties of the Lords.

Something clearly had to be done; and as the land-owners were strong in Parliament, we shall find their policy in tracing what Parliament did. The first idea was to check this rise in wages, which seemed to them ruinous. No injustice was intended, because Parliament meant to check the rise in prices also; if prices remained the same, it was argued, there was no need for wages to rise. It seems very strange to us to think of Parliament meddling in such matters at all,

but there was nothing strange to men of the day. Every trade had its craft gild, which fixed the price at which its wares should be sold. Parliament was only attempting to do for the country what the craft gilds did in the towns.

The task, however, was too big. Parliament made a series of laws called the Statutes of Labourers, by which all labourers were ordered to take the old rate of wages, under pain of imprisonment, branding with a hot iron, slavery, and even death. But even these ferocious penalties could not make men obey the laws. The rise in prices went on: men could not live on the old wages; and yet lords could not afford to see their estates uncultivated. Thus many lords were tempted to break the very laws that were intended to protect them, by offering the higher wages which Parliament had prohibited.

Statutes of Labourers.

The policy of trying to put the clock back failed; it was bound to fail. Yet a party of the land-owners, untaught by their first failure, tried to go still further back. Wages, they felt, were at the root of the trouble; but there had been a time when no wages were paid or needed, when all paid services, and the land was cultivated by serfs. Why not revive this? It seemed easy; all that was needed was to refuse the commutation payments, and make the serfs pay services once more.

Revival of Serfdom.

This policy was worse than the other. Men who have partly gained freedom will not consent to lose what they have won. Soon all the peasants were infuriated with their lords. A poll-tax which pressed far more on the poor than it did on the rich caused their smouldering discontent to break into flame. In 1381 risings broke out in East Anglia and in all the counties near London.

Peasant Revolt.

The Kentish peasants, with Wat Tyler as leader, reached London. Richard II. met them boldly at Smithfield. There was need of courage, for the city was in the hands of the mob, and the day before, rioters, pouring into the Tower of London, had murdered the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Treasurer, who had proposed the hateful poll-tax. As Wat Tyler approached, the Mayor of London, thinking he meant to insult and perhaps attack the king, cut him down. The mob were bending their bows to fire on the royal party, when Richard rode forward and cried to them, "I will be your leader", and by fair words and promises got them to disperse quietly. These promises were not kept. The rioters, by burning manor-houses to destroy the records of the serfdom, and hanging lawyers as being the persons who made these deeds, and generally acting in a brutal way, made it impossible to treat them mildly. So the king employed force, and put down the Peasant Revolt with great severity.

Thus injustice had led to violence, as it often does, and neither party had gained. In few cases were the lords able to force their serfs to pay services again; on the other hand, many rioters were hanged, and the rebels did not get the abolition of serfdom which they had demanded.

Land Let on Lease.

Since labour could not be obtained at the old rates, nor services re-exacted without danger of violence and murder, it was necessary to pay the new rates, or to do with less labour. Some lords granted land on lease to tenants for a rent, giving them stock as well as land. Thus the tenant had to find the labour; the lord was free of the difficulty. Here we have the beginnings of the modern farmer, a person who stands between the labourer and the

land-owner. Others, however, met the difficulty in another way. There was a great demand at the time for wool, and English wool was then the best that could be had. So, many lords started sheep-farming instead of arable farming. It paid better, because less labour was needed. Many labourers were required for a large arable farm; but when it was laid down in grass one or two shepherds could tend all the sheep on it.

Sheep-farming.

Thus sheep-farming led to many men being out of employment; and as under the old system the serfs' small patches of land were often mixed up with the wide farms of the land-owner, now the latter came to wish to evict the serfs and take their land for sheep-farms. He enclosed also the waste or common land on which the serfs had pastured their cattle, and this, too, made it hard for the serfs to keep their holdings. Thus the land-owners who had at first struggled to keep their serfs, ended by trying to drive them off altogether. No doubt great misery was often caused by this depopulation. Something of the same kind has been seen in our own day in the Highlands, where the crofters have been turned out to give place to sheep-farms and deer-forests. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries Parliament tried to stop this process of enclosure for sheep-farms, but without much result.

Depopulation.

Thus in the end the effects of the Black Death caused serfdom to disappear. By the time of Elizabeth it was at an end. But it was not that the peasants obtained freedom by their revolt. Upon the whole, the revolt only made their chains tighter. Yet by degrees the labour of serfs came to be no longer required; and lords granted freedom easily since serfdom was no longer worth keeping.

XIV.—WYCLIF AND THE LOLLARDS.

More than a hundred years before Martin Luther began his dispute with the Roman Church which ended in the Reformation, England had seen a churchman start on a very similar career. The story of John Wyclif and his followers, the Lollards, shows clearly that England was not at all satisfied with the authority of the pope long before the time came when the nation broke away from the Roman authority, and the Church in England became National and Protestant.

Dislike of the Pope.

The interference of the pope in English affairs, even when this interference was only in affairs of the Church, had always been disliked. In Edward III.'s reign this feeling of dislike became very strong. Men saw a great deal of money being sent to Rome as taxes, and they did not think it right that they should pay it; they saw, too, a great many foreigners who were appointed by the pope holding rich livings, deaneries, and high posts in the Church, and they would have preferred that Englishmen should have these posts. They saw a few churchmen, each holding many livings, and perhaps never going near some of them, and they contrasted the fine clothes and crowds of servants of these men with the poverty of the parish priests. It seemed to them that these rich churchmen neglected their duty, and thought more of the good things of this world than it was right for them to do. "God", they said, "gave his people to be pastured, not to be shaven and shorn." And so the idea got about that some change and reform was needed. We must not think that all, or even the greater part of the

churchmen in England were negligent or careless; there were many then, as there have always been, bent on doing their duty to the utmost. Unfortunately it was not for the most part these men who were placed in high positions.

Besides the ordinary clergy there was in England a large number of friars. These were quite different from the monks who stayed in their monasteries, often leading idle lives there. The friars, who mostly belonged either to the Dominican or the Franciscan order, went among the people. St. Dominic, who founded the first order, had sent his friars to preach and to convert those who believed wrongly, or were careless about religion. St. Francis bade his order show by the example of a pure and simple life, and charitable acts, what the followers of Christ should do. Both Black and Grey Friars, as they were called from their dresses, were to copy the poverty of our Lord, and to live and teach amongst the poor. They were not allowed at first to have any property at all.

The Friars.

These orders began well, and when they first came to England, in the reign of Henry III., they did a great deal of good. But unfortunately they did not keep to their simplicity and their vows of poverty. They grew rich, and they grew learned; and they deserted the habitations of the poor, going instead among the rich, or to the universities, where they became great scholars and teachers, but not teachers of what they had first been sent to teach, namely, the simple message of Christ. And those who remained scattered over the country were disliked because they were obedient only to the pope; they were not obliged to obey English bishops, and they often interfered with the parish priests.

All these things helped to rouse a feeling of hostility to the clergy, and especially to the pope; and to make things worse, the popes themselves at this time had fallen on evil days. First of all, they had been unwise enough to leave Rome (1309) and live at Avignon in France, and so they fell much into the power of the kings of France. Englishmen at this time hated France, with whom they were carrying on a prolonged war, and were consequently disposed to be prejudiced against what they regarded as French popes. Then in 1378 began the Great Schism, when there was one pope at Rome and another at Avignon, each claiming to be Christ's vicar on earth. This division went on for forty years, and while some people obeyed the popes at Avignon and others the popes at Rome, many were inclined to reject both. So that altogether the authority of the popes became for the time much less convincing than it had been.

The Popes in France; the Schism.

John Wyclif, who became the leader of the attack on the faults of the clergy, was a Yorkshireman who had gone to Oxford, where he had become master of Balliol College. Being a scholar, he looked at matters from a historical point of view. The faults of the Church, he said, came in the main from its pursuit of wealth and power on earth: if it had remained true to the poverty and simplicity of the apostles none of the abuses would have occurred. Thus he found nothing in the Bible to justify the payments made to the pope, called annates and first-fruits, or to excuse the holding of more than one benefice at once (pluralities), or to defend the easy and careless lives which were led alike by many churchmen and many friars. Wyclif was at first helped by John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, who

Wyclif.

wished to drive the clerics out from the council of King Edward III. Thus when Wyclif was summoned to St. Paul's to be tried for what he had written, the duke stood beside him to defend him; when Courtenay, Bishop of London, declared that Wyclif was little better than a heretic, the duke threatened to drag Courtenay from the church by the hair of his head. A riot began; the citizens of London rushed in to defend their bishop; and Wyclif nearly lost his life. 1377.

Brawling and abuse was not the way to mend matters. Wyclif himself took no part in it. His next steps were more practical. He founded an order of poor preachers, "the Simple Priests", to spread his ideas among the people. He also directly appealed to the people himself by his tracts, which he wrote, not in Latin, the language hitherto used for all religious discussion, but in homely, plain, forcible English, which all could understand. We shall find Luther also discarding the priestly Latin in favour of his native German when he too begins his quarrel with the Catholic Church. And finally, Wyclif also anticipated Luther's work by translating the Bible from the Latin into English, so that it should no longer be the property of scholars, but open to all to read for themselves, or aloud to their friends who were too ignorant to read. Translation of the Bible.

For a time Wyclif's followers, the Lollards, increased fast in numbers. It was said that if you saw five men talking together, three were Lollards. But in the later years of Richard II. the Church began to take vigorous measures to root out their heresy. And when Henry IV., who owed his position on the throne partly to the support of the Church, became king, the persecution grew fierce.

Thus the beginning of Henry's reign is marked by a statute "for the burning of Heretics", and directly after a Lollard named William Sawtre was sent to the stake. In Henry V.'s reign the Lollards were still numerous enough to threaten a rebellion. They were protected and encouraged by Sir John Oldcastle, a brave soldier who had fought well in Henry IV.'s wars against the Welsh. He was arrested and sentenced to be burnt, but he escaped. A plot was formed for a great mass of Lollards to meet in St. Giles's fields, and to seize the king. The plot was discovered, and the king, by closing the gates of London and sending a body of horse to the meeting-place, prevented an outbreak. Oldcastle was at last recaptured, and burnt as a heretic. After this we hear little more of the Lollards, although in a few villages Lollardry lingered on till the time of the Reformation.

1401.

Lollard Rising.

The movement was on the whole a failure, because the Lollards had nothing definite to propose. They were united in complaining about the wealth and luxury of great churchmen, but in little else. Some followed Wyclif's later opinions, and became actually heretics; that is to say, they denied some of the teachings of the Church, and wanted a reform in doctrine. But the people at large had not the least wish for this; they regarded it as going much too far. In two points, however, Wyclif's life is memorable. He gave us our first Bible in English, and he also taught the right of all, clergy and laity alike, to form their ideas of conduct on what they found in the Bible, without being obliged to follow blindly what they were told to believe.

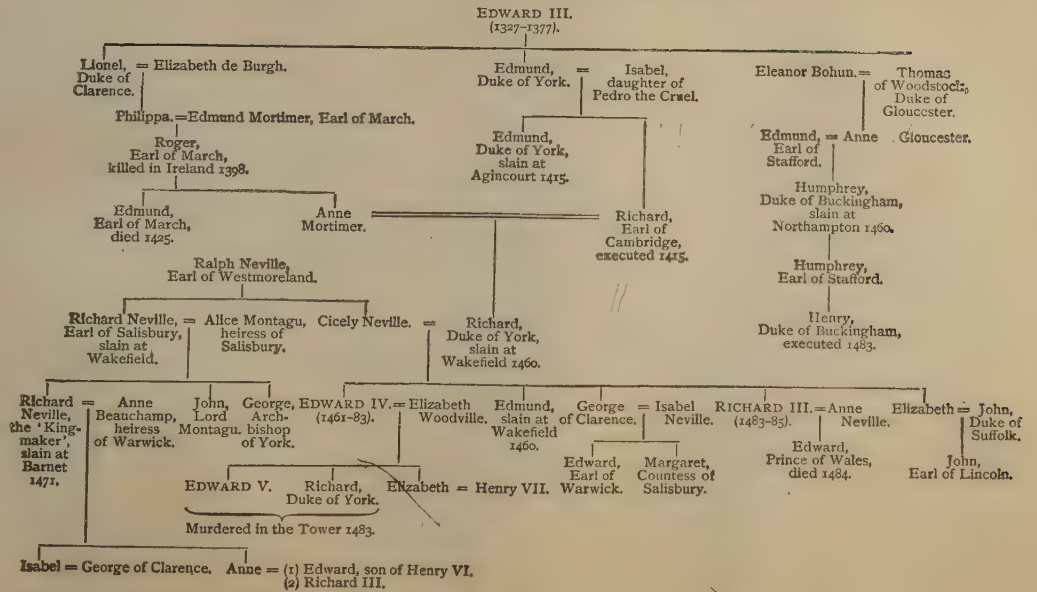
XV.—THE WARS OF THE ROSES.

We have already seen the evils of a dispute over the rightful heir to the throne in Scotland, and in France. We have now to observe them in England. Edward III.'s eldest son, the Black Prince, died before his father, but he left a son who became Richard II. Richard II. had no children; he made many enemies, and his cousin, Henry of Lancaster, deposed him and became king as Henry IV. Unfortunately there were other cousins descended also from Edward III., and representing the lines of Clarence and York. Since Clarence was of an older line than Lancaster, there was always a doubt if the house of Lancaster had the best right to the crown. And at last a York married a Clarence, and the child of that marriage, Richard of York, began the Wars of the Roses to turn the Lancaster king, Henry VI., off the throne.

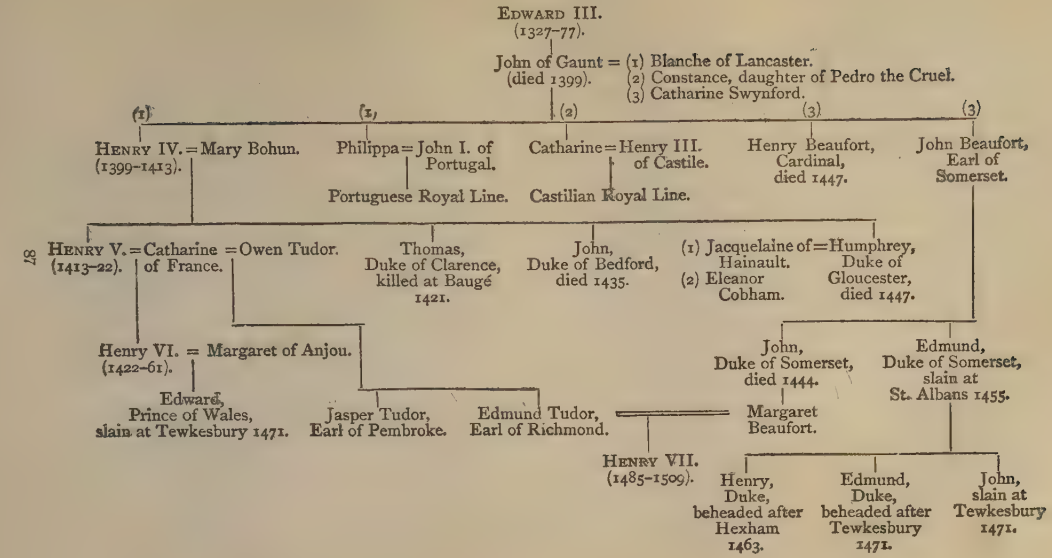
Disputes about the Succession; Lancaster and York.

Had Henry VI. been as strong a king as his father Henry V., or his grandfather Henry IV., he would have had little to fear. England had chosen him as king; the Parliament had accepted him; and it has always been held that Parliament could make whom it pleased king, without paying attention to the claims of birth. For instance, the house of Hanover, to which our queen belongs, was put on the throne by Parliament. But Henry VI., though very good and pious, was weak; and in his later years he went mad. During all his reign, too, everything went wrong at home and abroad. Many people, therefore, thought that it would be better to have a strong man like Richard of York as king.

THE WHITE ROSE AND THE NEVILLES.



THE RED ROSE.


Edward III.
(1327–77).
John of Gaunt = (1) Blanche of Lancaster.
(died 1399). (2) Constance, daughter of Pedro the Cruel.
(3) Catharine Swynford.
(1)
(1)
(2)
(3)
(3)
Henry IV. = Mary Bohun.
(1399–1413).
Philippa = John I. of Portugal.
Portuguese Royal Line.
Catharine = Henry III. of Castile.
Castilian Royal Line.
Henry Beaufort, Cardinal, died 1447.
John Beaufort, Earl of Somerset.
Henry V. = Catharine = Owen Tudor.
(1413–22). of France.
Thomas, Duke of Clarence, killed at Baugé 1421.
John, Duke of Bedford, died 1435.
(1) Jacquelaine of Hainault. = Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, died 1447.
(2) Eleanor Cobham.
Henry VI. = Margaret of Anjou.
(1422–61).
Edward, Prince of Wales, slain at Tewkesbury 1471.
Jasper Tudor, Earl of Pembroke.
Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond.
John, Duke of Somerset, died 1444.
Edmund, Duke of Somerset, slain at St. Albans 1455.
Margaret Beaufort.
Henry VII.
(1485–1509).
Henry, Duke, beheaded after Hexham 1463.
Edmund, Duke, beheaded after Tewkesbury 1471.
John, slain at Tewkesbury 1471.

It is needless for us to follow the course of the Wars of the Roses. A few main points are all we require. After five years of civil war Henry VI. was deposed, and Edward IV., the head of the Yorkists, was made king in his place. Edward had great difficulty in keeping the throne; indeed, he was once driven from the kingdom and Henry VI. set up again. But Edward got back his power by hard fighting. His son, Edward V., a boy of thirteen, was deposed and murdered by his uncle, Richard of Gloucester, who made himself Richard III. After a reign of two years he was killed in battle, and the Lancastrian line was restored by Henry Tudor, Henry VII. He wisely married the heiress of the house of York, and so brought the struggle to an end (1485).

What we have to remark is, not the changes of kings, but the effect of the rivalry between the Red Rose of Lancaster and the White Rose of York upon England. To begin with, we have forty years of civil war, from the battle of St. Albans to the battle of Bosworth in which Richard III. was killed. During this time scarcely anyone cared for the law. The House of Commons was too weak to make men obey it; the Lords were all fighting on one side or the other. Thus we have some of the ill days of King Stephen over again. The barons kept armies of their own, consisting of retainers, as their men were called, who wore the crest of their lord and fought for him. Thus Warwick's men all wore the crest of the bear and the ragged staff, Holland's men the cresset, and Montagu's the dun bull. It is easy to understand that nobles with armies at their back did not care for the law. If a jury gave a verdict against them, the

Forty Years of Civil War and Lawlessness.

ENGLAND
1327-1485.
Battlefields shewn thus:-.....
Perth
Dupplin
Stirling
Glasgow
Edinburgh
Berwick
Halidon Hill
SCOTLAND
Bamborough
Homildon
Alnwick
Dumfries
Annan
Hexham
Newcastle
Carlisle
Neville's Cross
Durham
Richmond
Middleham
I. of Man
Lancaster
York
Bramham Moor
Hull
Wakefield
Pontefract
Ravenspur
Doncaster
Anglesea
Lincoln
Dublin
Chester
Nottingham
Harlech
Bloreheath
Castle Rising
Stamford
Lynn
Shrewsbury
Bosworth
Norwich
Leicester
Aberystwith
Ludlow
Coventry
Warwick
Northampton
Bury
Mortimer's Cross
Worcester
Edgecot
Cambridge
Ipswich
Hereford
Tewkesbury
Stoney Stratford
Gloucester
St. Albans
Pleshey
Cirencester
Oxford
Barnet
Milford Haven
Pembroke
Radcot Br.
London
Sandwich
Berkeley
Windsor
Dartford
Bristol
Newbury
Canterbury
Dover
Winchester
Calais
Salisbury
Winchelsea
Southampton
Exeter
Weymouth
Portsmouth
I. of Wight
Plymouth
Dartmouth
Crecy
R. Somme
Falmouth
C. La Hogue
Cherbourg
Harfleur
Rouen
Guernsey
R. Seine
Formigny
Caen
Jersey
St. Lô
FRANCE

jurors were set on and beaten, perhaps even murdered. If a noble had a grudge against anyone, he would lead his men to besiege and plunder his enemy's house. In fact, throughout all England Might became Right.

There were worse features in the Wars of the Roses than the disregard of law. We are accustomed to think of Britons fighting honestly, that is to say, choosing a side and sticking to it; and we expect that whatever happens they will give quarter to those who surrender, and will not kill their prisoners. Unfortunately, neither of these beliefs is true of the Wars of the Roses. Never, indeed, was there more treachery and more cruelty towards prisoners.

What, for example, could be more treacherous than the conduct of Lord Grey de Ruthyn at Northampton, when, instead of defending the Lancastrian lines, he and his men assisted the Yorkists to mount over the rampart raised to keep them out? But this does not stand alone. Warwick the Kingmaker fought first for the Yorkists, and was at last killed while fighting for the Lancastrians at Barnet. The battle of Bosworth was decided by Stanley's troops deserting Richard III. and going over to the Lancastrian side in the midst of the battle. And what can exceed the treachery of Edward IV.'s brother, George of Clarence, that prince who we are told came to his end by being drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine? He betrayed his brother to Warwick, then betrayed Warwick to his brother. Rightly does Shakespeare call him—

Treachery.

"False, fleeting, perjured Clarence".

The war, too, is thick with examples of cruelty.

Every battle was followed by executions of the prisoners. Tiptoft, the Yorkist Earl of Worcester, a man of scholarship and refinement, to whom one might imagine brutality to be odious, yet earned the nickname of the Great Butcher of England by the joy he took in having his captured foes executed. When at last he himself was beheaded England rejoiced. When the Lancastrians won Wakefield fight, Clifford and the queen, Margaret of Anjou, who led them, caused the head of Richard of York, who had fallen in the battle, to be cut off and placed on the gates of York, crowned with a paper crown, in mockery of his claims to the throne. After the second battle of St. Albans two Yorkist prisoners were brought before Henry VI.'s young son, Edward, then seven years old. The queen, his mother, bade him choose what death they should die. The boy answered, "Let them have their heads taken off". A few years later this same bloodthirsty child was stabbed at Tewkesbury, while fleeing, by Richard of Gloucester.

Executions of Prisoners.

This man sums up all that is worst in the age. He has gone down to all time as the ruthless Richard Crookback, who murdered the young princes in the Tower. They were his brother Edward IV.'s children; they had been placed in his care; but they stood between him and the throne, and that was enough. They were both strangled at his orders by two ruffians employed by Sir James Tyrrell.

Richard III.

If Richard Crookback—Richard III. of England—is the worst of the Yorkists, he is matched in savagery by a woman, the Lancastrian queen, Margaret of Anjou. Her deeds at Wakefield and St. Albans have been already told. She was not an Englishwoman; we may be glad of it. It is true

Margaret of Anjou.

that she was brave and vigorous. She has sometimes won sympathy as the injured queen fighting for her husband, and as the mother who, when fleeing from a battle with her son, saved him from a marauder by saying boldly, "This is the son of your king"; but sympathy is wasted on her. She was as fierce as any lawless baron, and in treachery to the nation she outdid them all. It was she who urged the French in time of peace, and when her own husband was on the throne, to attack, burn, and plunder the town of Sandwich, which she knew would be undefended, because she thought that the disaster would make people blame the Duke of York, who was regent.

One other person remains for us to notice—Richard Neville, the great Earl of Warwick and Salisbury. No noble had ever been so powerful as he; none has ever been so powerful again. His lands lay in almost every shire in England. In the Midlands and in Wales whole counties regarded him as more their master than they did the king. He had many castles, and hosts of retainers. He it was who put Edward IV. on the throne: when in later years Edward offended him, Warwick drove him from the kingdom, allied himself with the Lancastrians, and restored King Henry VI. Thus he got the title of the "Kingmaker", for it seemed that he could make and unmake kings by his word. Edward IV. was never secure on his throne till he had beaten his former friend at Barnet, where, as was usual in those days, when all wore heavy armour, Warwick was too much encumbered to escape, and was cut down in the pursuit.

Warwick the Kingmaker.

It was then the great barons who made the wars. They also suffered in them. When the Wars of the Roses came to an end, there were only a few barons

left. They had perished in battle or under the headsman's axe; and many had left no heirs. At first the people of England as a mass cared little for either Lancaster or York. By degrees they came to hate both alike, and they determined to put a stop to such struggles for ever. The only cure, they saw, was the old cure, namely, to make the king so strong that no barons could stand against him. Hence we shall find the Tudor kings, who begin with Henry VII., very powerful and stern rulers. They are sometimes called despots, by which we mean kings who do what they please without consulting Parliament. It is true that the Tudors were despots; but they were so, because the nation made them so. England had no wish to have the Wars of the Roses over again.

Destruction of the Baronage.

XVI.—THE REFORMATION IN ENGLAND. FIRST PERIOD: ENGLAND CASTS OFF THE POWER OF THE POPE.

Henry VII. ruled from 1485 till 1509. Much of his time was spent in crushing the last embers of the Wars of the Roses. Thus he refused to allow the nobles to keep retainers who wore their lord's livery and fought for him as soldiers. To strengthen his position he collected a great hoard of money. He also tried to make himself more powerful by marrying his children to foreign princes and princesses. He gave his daughter to be the wife of James IV. of Scotland: we shall see the result of this by and by. He also married his son Henry to a Spanish princess, Catha-

Henry VII.; Marriages of his Children.

rine of Aragon. This also was one of the most important marriages ever made by English kings.

The first part of Henry VIII.'s reign was occupied with foreign politics. We need not try to follow all that Henry did, but we must remember the chief outlines, for foreign politics led to the most memorable event of the reign, the Reformation.

Henry VIII., 1509-1547.

There were two great rivals in Europe at this time, the King of France and the King of Spain. The latter, Charles V., was, however, much more than King of Spain as we know it. He was ruler over the Low Countries (Holland and Belgium), and of part of Italy. He had also been elected emperor, that is to say, he was lord of Germany: and besides this, he was master of the riches of the New World, in consequence of the discoveries of Christopher Columbus, who had been employed by the Spanish government, and had sailed across the Atlantic to America in 1492. Between these two rivals Henry VIII. steered a middle course. His great minister, Cardinal Wolsey, thought that England could reap most advantage by making the rivals bid against each other for the aid of England. The result, however, was that both came to distrust and despise England. And so Wolsey, who hoped to be made pope, and trusted to the King of Spain to help him, found that Charles V. preferred to help someone who was a more faithful friend. Twice Wolsey was disappointed in his ambitions.

Rivalry of France and Spain; Wolsey.

Meanwhile Henry had grown tired of his Spanish wife. She had borne him a daughter, but no son, and Henry wanted a male heir to the throne. Besides, he had fallen in love with Anne Boleyn. So he wished for a divorce: for

The Divorce.

this purpose application had to be made to the pope, and the king entrusted the business to Wolsey, who was at first not unwilling to do the King of Spain an ill turn. He did not expect to have much trouble in getting the divorce, because the popes had often granted similar divorces to other kings.

However, the unexpected came to pass. The pope, Clement VII., did not wish to offend Wolsey and Henry VIII., but he feared offending Charles V. of Spain a great deal more. Charles V. was Queen Catharine's nephew: he did not intend to see her divorced without reason. And as he had a big army in Italy, the pope did what Charles ordered instead of obliging Henry VIII. The divorce was not granted. Henry VIII. was a headstrong man who could not bear to be thwarted. So he threw Wolsey into disgrace for failing to procure the divorce, and he quarrelled with the pope.

Now it happened that at this time it was easy to find grounds for a quarrel. Religion had become too largely a matter of forms and ceremonies merely. Even in the highest places in the Church there were some who led evil lives, and had no real faith in what they taught. Many faithful sons of the Church thought that these things should not be, and a German friar named Martin Luther was led to believe a complete change was needed. In 1517 he "protested" against certain practices of the Church, and his followers, the first Protestants, converted a great part of Germany to agree with them and to cast off the authority of Rome, which meant casting themselves out of the Church.

Martin Luther.

It would have been simple, then, for Henry to side with Luther and become a Protestant. But this was not what Henry wished. The Pope, he argued,

refused him his divorce. Very good, he would break free from the pope; he would get the divorce in his own courts; but he had no desire to change his beliefs as the Protestants were doing. He intended to believe what he had always believed, but he would not be controlled by the pope.

In this England was ready to follow him. Wyclif and the Lollards had felt the same more than a hundred years before, and the feeling of hostility had grown stronger with time. Consequently, the Parliament which met in 1529, and is generally called the Reformation Parliament, eagerly backed up Henry in his schemes. First, it declared that all appeals to Rome, and appointments made by the pope, were illegal; then it ordered that no payments should be made to the pope; and finally, it passed the Act of Supremacy, which said that Henry was the head of the Church in England. The link that had bound England to Rome ever since the Synod of Whitby—nearly nine hundred years before—was broken.

Henry casts off the Power of the Pope.

Thus Henry became neither a Roman Catholic nor a Protestant. No one could call him the first, for he had defied the pope, and he beheaded as traitors those Catholics who refused to take the Oath of Supremacy, and acknowledge him as Head of the Church. It was for this reason that Sir Thomas More, the most learned man in England, was put to death. He was really no traitor, but he could not honestly say that he thought Henry VIII. was right. On the other hand, none could imagine Henry to be a Protestant, for he held to all the Roman Catholic doctrines, and commanded his subjects to believe them also, on pain of death. Protestants who wished to follow Martin Luther and reject some of the old

beliefs were burnt as heretics. Strange as Henry's position may seem, most of his subjects agreed with him.

Two other events in the course of the Reformation are particularly noteworthy. The first is the dissolution of the monasteries. Monks were hateful to Henry, since they were not under the control of English bishops, but obeyed their own abbots, who were in their turn only obedient to the pope. The monasteries were very rich, and their wealth tempted the king. Finally, the monks were often lazy and sometimes ill-behaved; so that when the king caused an inquiry to be held, enough stories against them were collected to justify their being suppressed. Accordingly, in 1535 the smaller monasteries were broken up, and four years later the richer ones suffered the same fate. The king got an immense amount of property by this. Some he kept for himself, but much he gave to his nobles. This made the nobles support the Reformation, for they saw that if England were ever to return to the Roman Catholic Church, they would have to give up the monastic lands. But the poor suffered; the monasteries had been very charitable to them, and now many could hardly obtain bread. In consequence, we find that Henry VIII. and his successors had a great deal of trouble with beggars.

The Monasteries and their Land.

The other event that was of importance was a fresh translation of the Bible. This was mainly the work of Miles Coverdale. Thomas Cromwell, the king's chief minister, and Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, persuaded the king to allow it. First of all copies were placed in the churches, and afterwards anyone was allowed to keep a Bible in his home. Further, owing to the inven-

Translation of the Bible.

tion of printing, Bibles became cheaper, and so most men who could read were able to have one, a thing which was not possible in the old days when all books were in manuscript, that is to say, copied out by hand. The result of this was a steady increase in the Protestant party. Luther had taught men to look to the Bible and not to the pope as the source of what was right to believe. As soon as Bibles became common, it was certain that there would be more people anxious, not only to set aside the pope, but also the beliefs of the Roman Church.

Violence of the Time.

Henry's reign was a time of great violence. We have seen how he treated Catholics who denied his supremacy, and Protestants who would not believe what he ordered. His ministers found him a dangerous man to serve. Wolsey was disgraced, and died of a broken heart; Thomas Cromwell, who succeeded Wolsey, was beheaded. Henry married six wives; two he divorced, and two were put to death on the scaffold. Nor was his reign free from rebellion. There was a rising in the north of those who disliked Henry's changes in religion, led by Robert Aske and the abbots of the great Yorkshire monasteries; but Henry had the leaders of this "Pilgrimage of Grace", as it was called, arrested and brought to the block. He had begun his reign as a most popular king; towards the end of it he was dreaded. Yet Englishmen went on supporting him because, although he was severe, yet upon the whole he knew what England wanted, and did it.

XVII.—THE REFORMATION IN ENGLAND. SECOND PERIOD. ENGLAND BECOMES PROTESTANT.

Henry VIII. had left three children: Mary, daughter of his first queen, Catharine of Aragon; Elizabeth, daughter of his second queen, Anne Boleyn; and Edward, son of his third queen, Jane Seymour. Although the youngest, the son would in any case have been put before the daughters; further, Parliament had given to Henry the power of arranging the succession as he pleased, and he left the throne to Edward.

Edward VI. being only nine years old, the kingdom had to be directed by a regent. This office was placed in the hands of the Duke of Somerset, an ambitious, clever man, but rash and hasty. Urged on by Cranmer, he went further than Henry VIII. had done in religious matters. He did away with the mass, the Roman Catholic form of service, and issued a new service in English. He also gave orders that the images and pictures in the churches should be removed. This was done in a very unseemly way. Some of the men charged to carry out this duty paraded the country, dressed as mock priests in priestly garments, revelling and rioting, and casting the images and pictures into bonfires, with every sign of contempt. Devout men who had been accustomed to look on these images while engaged in their prayers, and who had been used since their childhood to think of them as holy, were much pained by behaviour which seemed to them impious. Out-of-the-way country districts were still on the whole

Edward VI., 1547–1553.

Somerset makes a Reform in Doctrine.

Catholic in feeling, and did not favour the ideas of the Reformers, as did London and the large towns. There was a serious rebellion in Devonshire, and another in Norfolk, which were only put down by hard fighting.

Thus Somerset grew unpopular; men blamed him for what he had done, and also for many things for which he was not responsible.

His place was taken by Northumberland, who was a selfish man, only interested in maintaining his own power. He caused Somerset to be executed; and he carried the Reformation still further, because he thought that the Reformers were the only people who would support him.

Northumberland and Lady Jane Grey.

One thing was clear. If Edward VI. were to die, Mary, who was a Catholic, would at once depose Northumberland; and Edward VI. was a very weakly boy. In a last hope of preserving his power, Northumberland caused his own son to marry Lady Jane Grey, who was a Protestant and had a claim to the throne. When, however, Edward VI. did die, no one would acknowledge Lady Jane as queen. Mary was chosen, and she punished Northumberland by putting him to death, and soon afterwards caused both Lady Jane and her husband to be beheaded.

Mary, 1553–1558.

Mary was a Catholic, as her mother had been; she was also half a Spaniard. All her ideas turned to Catholicism and to Spain. She wished to restore the old religion, and she resolved to marry her cousin, Philip II., King of Spain. This was disastrous for England. It was bad enough for the country to return to the obedience of the pope. It was far worse to be ruled according

The Spanish Match; Fear of Spain.

to Spanish ideas, for Spain was the country of the Inquisition, that hateful secret court which dealt with heresy. Everything about the Inquisition was detestable to English minds. It tried men in secret, whereas Englishmen had been used to open trials. The accused had no chance of hearing the accusation against him, or of meeting the witnesses face to face; he might be cruelly tortured, he might be imprisoned for years without trial, and at the end, if found guilty, he would be burned. A great burning of heretics was called by the Spaniards an auto-da-fè, an "act of faith". None could think of an Inquisition in England without shuddering. Everyone dreaded what the half-Spanish Mary, impelled by her Spanish husband, might do.

Mary soon showed that there was good reason to fear her. In February, 1555, Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester, was burned at the stake as a heretic. From that time onward till the end of Mary's reign, about ten persons were burned every month: the total mounts up to nearly three hundred. Even the Archbishop Cranmer was not spared. Every effort was made to lead him to declare himself a Roman Catholic: he was kept long in prison; he was sentenced to death, and then told that his life would be spared if he recanted; he was taken to witness the last agonies of his brother-Protestants being burned alive. In a moment of weakness he gave in; he signed a declaration that he had returned to the Roman faith. But the weakness passed, and when in spite of it he was burned, he thrust into the flames the erring right hand with which he had signed the cowardly document, that it might first be consumed.

Mary's Persecution; Death of Cranmer.

Three other bishops perished in the same way.

As a whole, however, the persecution fell upon the poorer classes. Unknown men went peacefully to the most horrible of deaths sooner than deny what they believed, or save themselves by a lie. The sight of this simple faith, which was not to be overcome even by the flames, did more to make men admire the Reformers, and seek to imitate them, than all Mary's cruelties could do towards terrifying them to be Catholics. They were obeying Martin Luther's stirring words:

Effect of the Persecution.

"God's word, for all their craft and force,
One moment shall not linger,
But spite of hell, shall have its course,
'Tis written by His finger.
And if they take our life,
Goods, honour, children, wife,
Yet is their profit small,
These things shall vanish all;
The City of God remaineth."[1]

Bishop Latimer, when in the midst of the fire, showed the same spirit when he cried to his fellow-sufferer, Bishop Ridley, "Be of good comfort, Master Ridley, play the man; we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out".

Latimer was right. Englishmen had entered on Mary's reign still undecided, they came out of it convinced. They would have no more of the pope, no more of Spanish burnings. Elizabeth, the new queen, was of the same mind. She put an end to the fires in Smithfield, she refused obedience to the pope. The mass was abolished, and the service-book in English restored. She made no attempt to find

England becomes Protestant under Elizabeth, 1558–1603.

[1] Martin Luther's hymn—translated by Thomas Carlyle.

out what men believed, or to punish them for it. All she desired was that they should worship peaceably, should go to church, and should acknowledge her as head of the National Church.

Thus after thirty years of struggle the Church of England finally won her freedom from the Roman see. But the end of religious troubles was not reached. There was a small party in England who thought it was wrong for Elizabeth to be head of the Church; they did not believe that the Church required any head on earth. And we shall see that this small party of Puritans by degrees grew powerful, and eventually threw the whole of Great Britain into confusion.

Growth of a Puritan Party.

XVIII.—THE UNLUCKY HOUSE OF STUART.

Soon after Robert Bruce's death all that he had won came near to being lost. His son David II. was but four years old when he became king. Edward Balliol revived his father, John's, claims. He was aided by a number of English barons, who were striving to regain the lands in Scotland which they had held for a time, and had lost on the fall of the English power. The Scottish regent, Mar, was surprised and routed at Dupplin, and the year after Edward III., who, seeing the chance of doing Scotland an injury, had taken up Balliol's cause, defeated the Scots at Halidon Hill, and overran the whole country. David had to be sent for safety to France.

Dupplin, 1332; Halidon Hill, 1333.

Edward III. had done as much as his grandfather,

but he could do no more. He could defeat the Scots in battle; the English archers proved as fatal to Scottish men-at-arms as they were to the French; but he could not conquer the country. Besides, he soon had, as we have seen, a French war on his hands; and by degrees Scotland slipped from his grasp. The castles were recaptured, and David returned to his kingdom.

The Scottish Nobles.

One curse of Scotland—foreign invasion—was for the time stayed. Unluckily another soon appeared—quarrels at home. For the next two hundred years it seems as if nothing but the presence of the hated English invader could unite Scotland, and keep king and nobles from flying at each other's throats. No two men had distinguished themselves more against the English than Douglas the Knight of Liddesdale, and Ramsay of Dalwolsy. They were comrades in arms, champions of the same cause. Yet no sooner was David II. restored to his throne than Douglas, jealous of an office given to Ramsay, treacherously seized his friend, and sent him to starve to death in the dungeon of Hermitage Castle. The name Douglas, so gloriously borne by the Good Lord James, was to have an evil sound thenceforward in Scottish history; formidable indeed to foes, but equally dangerous to the peace of Scotland.

The House of Douglas.

David died childless, and so the Bruce line came to an end. A grandson of King Robert's on the mother's side was given the crown. This was Robert Stuart, Robert II. [1371].

The House of Stuart may well be termed "The Unlucky House". Six kings, descended from Robert II., sat on the throne of Scotland. Of these only one, Robert III., had a peaceful end, and he, before his

death, saw one of his sons cruelly murdered, and the other a prisoner in England. Robert III., too, was the only one to attain old age; none of the others lived to be forty-five; three of them were cut off ere they had entered on the second half of life's natural span: James I. was murdered; James II. killed by the bursting of a cannon at the siege of Roxburgh; James III. assassinated; James IV. killed at Flodden; James V. died of a broken heart. It is a series of disasters, unparalleled in history. Yet, unlucky as the kings were, their country was even more so. Year after year and reign after reign, war follows rebellion and rebellion follows war, in dreary succession. Homes burnt, fields ravaged, invasions, defeats, raids from the Highlands, hangings, murders, come one after the other. National independence was a good thing, but no use could be made of it while there was neither order nor firm government. A king could do little for his people so long as his whole resources were being strained to crush the great families into obedience.

The Stuarts.

Robert III. had been ruled by his brother Robert, Duke of Albany. It was Albany and the Earl of Douglas who were concerned in the murder by starvation of the king's elder son. When the younger son, James I., was released from his captivity in England, his first step was to take vengeance on the Albanys. The old duke was dead, but the king had his successor, Duke Murdac, and his two sons, executed. Severity was necessary: it was well-deserved. Unhappily a stern king was certain to raise up against himself enemies who hated justice and order. Sir Robert Graham formed a plot against the king's life. Late

Robert III., 1390–1406.

James I., 1406–1437.

at night a sudden tramp of armed men was heard in the Abbey of the Black Friars at Perth, where the king was staying. James, fearing the worst, tore up the planks of the floor and took refuge in a vault below, while Catherine Douglas, one of the queen's women, tried to secure the door by thrusting her arm across as a bolt. It was all in vain. A woman's slender arm was no bar to bloody-minded villains. The king's hiding-place was discovered. Graham leapt down and murdered him.

James II., 1437–1460.

The heir to the throne was a boy of six. A regency was necessary, and this, as usual, gave an opening to rebellions and feuds. The great House of Douglas did not lose the opportunity. James II.'s reign was one long struggle with this lawless family.

The House of Douglas.

The Douglases were, in fact, as dangerous to the House of Stuart in Scotland as the Kingmaker had been in England to Henry VI. and Edward IV. William Douglas used to march at the head of an army against those who offended him; he had them put to death without trial; he burned their castles and seized their lands. He even executed Maclellan, the Tutor of Bomby, in defiance of the king's express command. Ferocious as the Douglases were, the king was as merciless. One Earl of Douglas and his brother were invited to a friendly banquet in Edinburgh Castle, and there seized and beheaded. Crichton the chancellor was responsible for that deed; but the king soon copied it, stabbing another Douglas earl at Stirling with his own hand. For three years all Scotland was fighting either for James Stuart or James Douglas. It was only by acting on Archbishop Kennedy's advice—to deal with his enemies as a man would deal with a sheaf

of arrows, breaking them singly, since they were too strong when bound together—that James II. triumphed. Bribery, promises of pardon or advancement, treachery, robbed Douglas of many of his followers. His army was routed by the Scotts at Arkinholme. Douglas fled into England, where he remained for twenty years. When he at last came back to Scotland, the king had him placed as a monk in the convent of Lindores, where he died. With him fell for ever the power of the elder line, the "Black" Douglas.

Arkinholme, 1455.

Struggling with the Scottish nobility was like encountering the Hydra; one head smitten off, straightway others reared themselves up in its place. Boyds, Homes, Hepburns, and Angus the "Red" Douglas, a younger branch, were even more fatal to James III. than the Black Douglas had been to his father. James III. was weak and timid. He made favourites of men of low origin, especially Robert Cochran, an architect, whom he raised to be Earl of Mar. His turbulent nobles could not endure this upstart's exaltation over them. Cochran was hanged from the Bridge of Lauder by Archibald Bell-the-Cat, Earl of Angus. Six years later Angus, aided by Homes and Hepburns, raised an army, captured the king's son at Stirling, and made him march with them against his father. They met the king at Sauchie Burn. James III., fleeing from the field, was thrown from his horse, and carried, stunned and bleeding, into Beaton's Mill. Feebly he asked for a priest. A man calling himself such was brought in; bending over the king on pretence of hearing his confession, he stabbed him to the heart.

James III., 1460–1488.

Battle of Sauchie Burn, 1488.

With James IV. domestic disorder for a time died

down. The king was strong, kept good order, and enforced the law. Yet it was his ill-fate to plunge afresh into war with England, and bring on his country the greatest defeat in her history.

James IV., 1488–1513.

Perhaps the most miserable thing about the battle of Flodden, in which James flung away his own life and the lives of most of the Scottish nobility, is its utter purposelessness. Ill-feeling began with a border quarrel, which might perfectly well have been patched up. But James IV. was headstrong and pugnacious, bent on winning renown in war. He gathered the finest army Scotland had ever mustered, and invaded England. Surrey encountered him not far from the junction of the Tweed and the Till. The fate of the battle was at first doubtful. The Highlanders on the Scottish right were swept away by the English archers, but on the other wing Home with the borderers rudely shook the English right, and threw it into confusion. Here came the critical point of the battle. Home failed to follow up his advantage: his border-lances turned to what was to them the most attractive part of any battle—plundering. On the other hand, Stanley kept his men in hand, and charged the Scottish centre in flank and rear. Closed in on every side, the Scots fought till night, with brilliant but useless courage against English lance, bill, and bow.

Flodden, 1513.

> "But yet, though thick the shafts as snow,
> Though charging knights like whirlwinds go,
> Though billmen ply the ghastly blow,
> Unbroken was the ring.
> The stubborn spearmen still made good
> Their dark impenetrable wood,
> Each stepping where his comrade stood
> The instant that he fell."[1]

[1] *Marmion*, Sir Walter Scott.

James IV. himself was killed in the midst of his nobility. There was hardly a house in Scotland that had not to mourn the loss of its best and bravest.

This disaster did not end at Flodden; it brought in its train another minority, and a fresh outburst of violence at home. Queen Margaret, the young king's mother, the Duke of Albany, and Angus the Red Douglas, all quarrelled over the regency. A fearful picture of the time is given us by the fierce affray in the High Street of Edinburgh between the Douglases and the Hamiltons. The latter were routed, and their hurried flight gave the name "Cleanse the Causeway" to the affray. But what chance of prosperity and peaceful growth of trade was there, when the chief street of the capital could be the scene of bloody fighting?

James V., 1513-1542. The Red Douglas.

Two attempts were made by Lennox and Buccleuch to release the king from the claws of Angus; both ended in defeat; in the last Lennox lost his life. At length the king fled by night from Falkland, and took refuge in Stirling Castle. The nobles, who had grown to hate the domineering sway of the Red Douglas as they had hated the Black, gathered in his support, and Angus was driven into exile.

James V., now grown to manhood, had a good idea of the duties of a king. He marched through the borders, and hanged the notorious border thief Johnny Armstrong, along with others of less renown; he reduced the Highland chiefs to some sort of obedience; he instituted the College of Justice, and encouraged arts and sciences; he also strove to find out about his people by going amongst them in disguise, and helping to do justice for those who were wronged. All this held out bright prospects for the future.

Promise of better Days.

It was but a lull in the storm. Clouds soon gathered again; the waves of the Reformation began to trouble Scottish waters. Henry VIII. wished his nephew James to copy his example in casting off obedience to the pope. James would not do so. Gradually ill-feeling between the sovereigns ripened. War was declared in 1542, but James V. had not even the advantages of his father. His nobles would not stand by him, because he had shorn away some of their privileges. The army which he gathered at Fala Muir mutinously refused to follow him into England. A second force of ten thousand borderers crossed the Esk, but, half-hearted and distrustful of their commander, Oliver Sinclair, they fled like sheep before four hundred English horsemen. Flodden was more disastrous, but there at any rate cowardice played no part. The Rout of the Solway was utterly disgraceful to king and nation alike. It was a crushing blow to James V. A few days afterwards he died of grief and humiliation. He was only thirty-one years of age.

Rout of the Solway, 1542.

This long period (1329–1542) which we have passed in review is a gloomy one. Hopes appear, only to be disappointed. The curse of Scotland at this time was the power of the unruly nobles. A country distracted with enemies abroad and rebels at home could make no real progress. Since neither life nor property was secure, few would settle down to trade or commerce. Even agriculture was slovenly and backward. All that flourished was war, with its handmaid, plunder. In forays, cattle-lifting, blackmail, and such like arts, Scots were proficient. Thus, while England was growing rich under the influence of law and order, Scotland remained poor, rude, and but half-civilized.

XIX.—MARY STUART AND THE REFORMATION IN SCOTLAND.

When James V. lay dying of a broken heart, news was brought to him that his queen had given birth to a daughter. James groaned; he had hoped for a son to continue the direct line of his house, and now this last hope was taken away. "It came with a lass, and it will go with a lass", were his sad words. Soon after he died, leaving the little princess of a few days old as his successor. This princess was Mary Queen of Scots. Mary Queen of Scots.

The position reminds us of a similar state of affairs more than two hundred and fifty years before, when the Maid of Norway was left heiress to the Scottish crown. Once again English policy turned to the idea of a marriage. Henry VIII. wished to marry his son, Edward VI., to Mary, and after his death Somerset the Protector held to the same plan. Yet both of them tried to gain their object in the most foolish way possible, namely, by violence. Henry sent a force which landed at Leith and burnt Edinburgh, but the Scots took their revenge by utterly overthrowing another army of the English at Ancrum Moor. Somerset was as unwise as his master. He sent an army under Lord Grey to invade Scotland. Grey met the Scottish forces at Pinkie, and in spite of the heroic resistance of the Scottish pikemen, at last defeated them by his superiority in firearms. The Scots were furious. Huntly well expressed the feelings of the nation when he told Somerset "he had no objection to the match, but to the manner of the wooing". Mary was sent for safety English Marriage Schemes.

to France, where she afterwards married Francis, son of the French King.

Before this, however, the Reformation in Scotland had begun. As in England, the printing of Bibles increased the number of those who began to think that both the government and the teaching of the Church was wrong. The Scottish Parliament gave all men leave to study the Scriptures in their own tongue; in consequence, we are told that "the Bible might be seen lying on almost every gentleman's table, the New Testament was carried about in many men's hands".

Reformation in Scotland.

Cardinal Beaton, the head of the Church party, decided to make an example. He chose George Wishart, who had made himself known by his fearless preaching against the Church. First a priest tried to murder Wishart, but the preacher snatched from him the dagger hidden under his gown. Soon after Wishart was arrested, and condemned to be burnt as a heretic. Cardinal Beaton looked on from a window in his castle of St. Andrews while the deed was done.

Wishart.

Wishart's friends determined on revenge. They stole into the castle, stabbed Beaton, and hanged his body from the very window at which he had gloated over Wishart's death. Then they defended the castle against the regent's forces, and some time passed before they were overcome. Most of them were punished by being sent to the French galleys. There was, however, one amongst them, who, while tugging at his oar as a galley-slave, never lost the hope that he might be permitted to return to his country and carry on the work of the Reformation in the spirit of his dead friend Wishart. This was John Knox. It

Murder of Cardinal Beaton.

Knox.

was not till some years later, however, that he was released.

Meantime the cause of Protestantism in Scotland was in grave danger. Mary of Guise, Mary Stuart's mother, became regent. She was a Roman Catholic and a Frenchwoman, and as just at this time Queen Mary married the Dauphin Francis, the whole power of France was placed at her service to crush the Reformers. Although at first she promised to be lenient, she was an enemy not less dangerous because she did not at once show her hostility. In a letter from Geneva Knox stirred up the Reformers to resist her, and in consequence certain nobles, Glencairn, Argyle, Morton, and others, formed an association to lead the Protestant party. The first act of these Lords of the Congregation, as they were called, was to demand that worship should be conducted in English, and that anyone might exhort and pray in his own house as he pleased.

Mary of Guise.

The year 1558 saw the prospects of the Reformers brighten. Elizabeth succeeded her sister, and England finally threw off the yoke of Rome; but far more valuable than this was the return of Knox. Men's epitaphs are often misleading, but the words on Knox's tomb tell us the naked truth about him, and reveal the secret of his power—"Here lies one who never feared the face of man". One who knew him bears the same testimony: "the voice of that one man is able in an hour to put more life into us than six hundred trumpets continually blustering in our ears". Soon after his return Knox preached a vehement sermon at Perth against idolatry. Some of his hearers suited their actions to what they took to be Knox's teaching. They threw down the

Return of Knox.

images in the cathedral, and destroyed the pictures and the stained windows. The spirit spread from Perth to St. Andrews, Dundee, Linlithgow, Edinburgh, and all over the country. The greatest ruin fell on the monasteries. "Burn the nests and the rooks will fly", cried Knox. The monks were scattered, their churches and buildings unroofed, their lands taken by the nobles. We may regret the wanton destruction of cathedrals, abbeys, and churches, which has left Scotland so bare of fine buildings, but we need not be surprised at it. "Revolutions", it has been said, "are not made with rose-water"; and the Reformers wished to efface everything that might connect men's minds with the religion which they hated.

Nothing was left to the Regent but to use force. She obtained troops from France; the Lords of the Congregation gathered an army and besieged the French at Leith. At this critical moment, when it was not clear to which side victory would incline, help came from England. Elizabeth hated Knox for a book he had written against women-rulers, but she feared the danger of Scotland falling into French hands still more. She resolved to aid the Lords of the Congregation, so she sent a fleet into the Firth of Forth, and cut off the French supplies. This ended the contest. The Regent Mary of Guise died, and by the Treaty of Leith the French troops were to leave Scotland. Power was thus left in the hands of the Reformers, and so Scotland became avowedly Protestant.

Treaty of Leith, 1560.

Thus when after her French husband's death Mary Stuart came back to Scotland, her position was one of great difficulty. She was Catholic, but her people were Protestant;

Mary in Scotland, 1561.

she was fond of France, but her people had grown to hate the French; she was the next heir to the English throne, but Elizabeth would not admit her claim. These things were all against her. Yet she had advantages. She was beautiful, and could persuade men to do what she wanted; and she was clever. Even Knox himself admitted that. 'If there be not in her a crafty wit," said he, "my judgment faileth me."

It was not long before Mary showed this crafty wit. In spite of Elizabeth's opposition she made up her mind to marry her cousin, Lord Darnley. Unluckily Darnley was not the right husband for Mary. The two soon quarrelled. Darnley was angry because Mary would not let him be called king; and he was jealous of an Italian musician, David Rizzio, whom Mary employed as her secretary. Although a Catholic, he joined with the Protestant nobles to plot Rizzio's murder. One evening he came to Holyrood in company with Ruthven, Morton, Lindsay, and others. Darnley went first into the queen's room, where she was sitting with Rizzio. He pretended he had come on a friendly visit, and put his arm round the queen's waist. Suddenly she was alarmed to see Ruthven clad in complete armour, ghastly pale of face, stalk into the room. Rizzio read his fate at a glance. He clung to the queen's skirts and cried for mercy, but he was in hands which knew no mercy. He was dragged into the next room and murdered.

Marries Darnley.

Murder of Rizzio.

If Darnley could be treacherous and merciless, there were others in Scotland who could match him. James, Earl of Bothwell, imagined that he would please the queen if he put Darnley out of the way. It is not clear that Mary

Bothwell murders Darnley.

knew of his intention, but what happened afterwards seems to show that Mary would not have felt any very strong disapproval if she had known. The facts were these: Darnley, who had been ill, was lodged at Kirk o' Field to recover. On Sunday, Feb. 9th, 1567, Mary visited him there: in the evening she returned to Holyrood, where she danced at a ball with Bothwell. As the dawn broke next morning, Edinburgh learnt with horror that Kirk o' Field had been blown into the air with powder, and Darnley murdered. Bothwell had planned the deed; he had even ridden straight from the ball at Holyrood to see it done.

None doubted that Bothwell was guilty; most believed that the queen knew of his design. It was impossible to bring the murderer to trial, as he filled Edinburgh with his followers, and his accuser feared for his life to appear. Bothwell's next act was to carry Mary with him to Dunbar. As if to leave nothing undone that could shock or disgust her people, within three months of Darnley's murder Mary married the murderer.

Mary marries Bothwell.

This was beyond endurance. The nobles gathered an army, and met Bothwell's men at Carberry. It could scarcely be called a battle. Bothwell's followers deserted him in scores. Bothwell himself had to flee for his life; he left Scotland, and at last was taken to Denmark, where he died in a Danish prison. Mary herself was shut up in Loch-leven Castle. As the castle lay on an islet in the midst of the loch, it was thought that she could not escape. Her son James was declared king; Moray, who was Mary's half-brother, and had been her best minister, was made regent.

Carberry.

Yet Mary still had friends. She contrived to escape in disguise, and joined her adherents, the Hamiltons.

Moray saw there was no time to lose. Although he had but few soldiers, he advanced against the Hamiltons, met them at Langside, and routed them. Mary rode southward from the field, utterly desperate. In a last hope she resolved to throw herself on Elizabeth for help. Her letter to the English queen when she landed at Workington ran, "It is my earnest request that your Majesty will send for me as soon as possible, for my condition is pitiable, not to say for a queen, but even for a simple gentlewoman". Pity, however, was not the motive most likely to guide Elizabeth. Bad as Mary's fate had been, even worse was in store for her.

Mary escapes from Lochleven; Langside.

Mary flees to England.

XX.—ROYAL MARRIAGES.

We have already followed the important effects of one royal marriage—we have seen how Henry VIII. married Catharine of Aragon, grew tired of her, and in order to obtain the divorce which he wanted had quarrelled with the pope and the King of Spain, and had ended by breaking with the Roman Catholic Church altogether. But this is only one of a series of royal marriages which at this time influenced not only England and Scotland at home, but affected their dealings with the rest of Europe. There are several others; and we cannot hope to understand the history of England at this time, unless we grasp the importance of these marriages.

To do this we must put modern ideas quite out of our head. We do not pay much attention to the marriages of the royal family now. For instance, the king's nephew is German Emperor, but we do

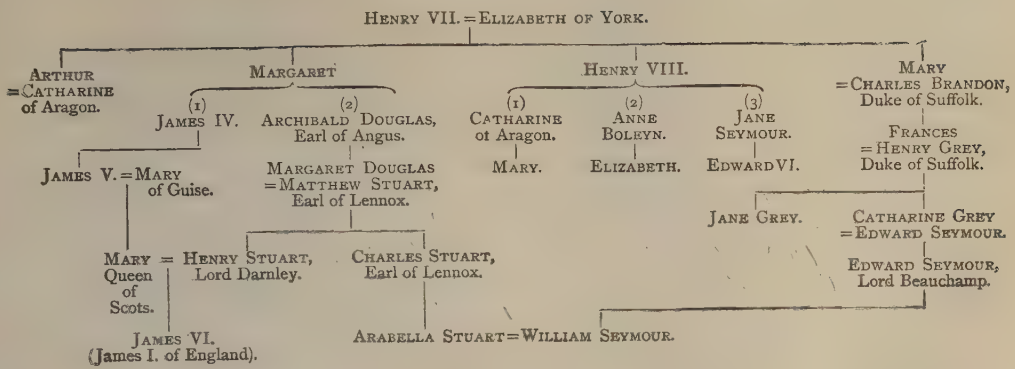
not find on that account any close alliance between Great Britain and Germany. We do not dream of his attempting, should other heirs fail, to unite the two kingdoms. But it was very different in the sixteenth century. Countries were then regarded as the *property* of their sovereigns. Should the ruler of Spain marry the ruler of England, it was thought that the two countries would naturally be united in policy; should there be an heir to such a marriage, he would naturally rule both countries. And besides this, it was felt that he would do his best to compel his dominions to hold the same religion as he held himself. So that on the result of a royal marriage there often hung not only the policy of a nation in its dealings with other nations, but also its religion and institutions; nay, even its separate existence as a nation might be in danger.

Under these circumstances, it is easy to see that royal marriages concerned England and Scotland very closely indeed. And it happened, by a curious chance, that just at this time, when both peoples were more interested in the question of their religion than anything else, their religion was apparently at the mercy of a marriage. For in England two queens, Mary and Elizabeth, came one after the other; and at the same time the ruler of Scotland was also a queen, Mary Queen of Scots, who was further the next heir to the throne of England. Thus both nations followed with strained attention the marriage proposals for these queens.

Mary Tudor Marries Philip II. of Spain.

Mary of England, the queen whom we have seen gain the opprobrious name of "Bloody Mary", herself a Catholic, the child of a Catholic mother, married her cousin, Philip II. of Spain, a ruler who is known in

THE TUDOR LINE.


Henry VII. = Elizabeth of York.
Arthur = Catharine of Aragon.
Margaret
(1) James IV.
(2) Archibald Douglas, Earl of Angus.
James V. = Mary of Guise.
Margaret Douglas = Matthew Stuart, Earl of Lennox.
Mary Queen of Scots.
Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley.
Charles Stuart, Earl of Lennox.
James VI. (James I. of England).
Arabella Stuart = William Seymour.
Henry VIII.
(1) Catharine of Aragon.
(2) Anne Boleyn.
(3) Jane Seymour.
Mary.
Elizabeth.
Edward VI.
Mary = Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.
Frances = Henry Grey, Duke of Suffolk.
Jane Grey.
Catharine Grey = Edward Seymour.
Edward Seymour, Lord Beauchamp.

Europe as the greatest persecutor of Protestantism who has ever lived. It is worth notice that the bitterness of Mary's persecution in England did not begin until after her marriage. Englishmen did not in those days think persecution wrong, but they did not give themselves enthusiastically to the task of burning heretics; that was a Spanish habit partly inherited by Mary from her Spanish mother, but still more learnt from her Spanish husband. Had Mary and Philip had a child he would have united England to Spain, and gone on with the cruelties of his father and mother to the Protestants. But fortunately no child came. Thus England was saved from falling into the clutches of Spain; for the next heir was Elizabeth, and she was a Protestant.

Yet it seemed as if the evil day was after all only put off. We had exchanged a Catholic queen for a Protestant, and that so far was good. But a queen was always dangerous. Elizabeth would be sought in marriage too: it was not likely that so great a prize, the Queen of England, would lack offers. In fact she was besieged with offers, both from France and Spain. Philip II., in his anxiety to add England to his dominions, even thought himself of marrying Elizabeth, though she was his late wife's half-sister, and though such a marriage was absolutely forbidden by his church. But Elizabeth, though she liked admiration and attention, and loved to coquet with her suitors, had no real wish to marry. To marry, she saw, would be to fall into the hands of a foreign prince. England, she declared, was her husband, and she remained a virgin queen.

Marriage Proposals for Elizabeth.

This was satisfactory for the time, but gave at first little hope for the future. For if Elizabeth were to

leave no heir, then Mary Queen of Scots would succeed her, and she too was a Roman Catholic, and what was worse, a woman who, by her marriage, would entangle England with some other state. And Mary, unlike Elizabeth, had no aversion to marriage. At the beginning of Elizabeth's reign Mary was wife to Francis II. the French king, also a Roman Catholic. It seemed as if England had escaped Spain only to fall into the jaws of France.

Difficulties of the Succession.

Mary Stuart's First Marriage.

Here again fortune fought for us. There was no child of this marriage either; and Francis II. died while still a young man, after only a few months of rule. Thus no heir was left to unite the crowns of Scotland and France, with the probability of some day adding to them that of England; and Mary Queen of Scots was more or less cut off from her alliance with France that might have proved so dangerous. She married, as we have seen, a second, and even a third time; first her cousin, Lord Darnley, and afterwards the Earl of Bothwell. But these were not dangerous royal marriages, for they did not give foreign states any claims over England or Scotland.

Now it is time to recall to our memories who Mary Queen of Scots herself was. She too was the descendant of one of these royal marriages so important in this age. She was the grandchild of James IV. of Scotland and Margaret Tudor, daughter of Henry VII. of England. This was her claim to the English throne. And by her second husband, Darnley, she had a son James. If this son were to live he would unite the thrones of England and Scotland. Little objection could be found to a union of this sort: it was the union of two kingdoms in the same island, with people of the same

Mary's Claim on England.

race, language and interests similar, and, above all, both in the main Protestant. One thing indeed looked bad. James Stuart was likely to be of his mother's religion, a Roman Catholic.

This difficulty, however, vanished with the others. When after Mary's defeat at Langside she took refuge in England, Elizabeth kept her a prisoner there. It was natural that her Catholic friends should make plots on her behalf, all the more that they were stirred up by the Spaniards to do so. First came an insurrection in the north of England, led by the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland. Then at intervals of a few years came Ridolfi's plot, and the Jesuit plot, headed by a priest named Campion, and finally Babington's plot, all with the same object, namely, to murder Elizabeth and put Mary on the throne. As Elizabeth found Mary a continual source of danger, we need not be surprised that she at last caused her to be beheaded. Such an act may perhaps be excused, but it cannot be commended. Mary had come to her for assistance; instead of getting it, she had been kept a prisoner nineteen years. Mary no doubt had plotted; but Elizabeth had done nothing to win the slightest gratitude from her, nor had she left her any hope of escaping, except by plots.

Plots against Elizabeth.

Execution of Mary.

The result of Mary's long imprisonment and death had been to leave her son James, King of Scotland and next heir to the throne of England, in the hands of her enemies in Scotland, who brought him up as a Presbyterian. We shall see that he did not keep to this church, but he always remained a Protestant, and as such England was ready to welcome him as king. Thus,

James VI. brought up a Protestant.

SCOTLAND
16th. 17th. & 18th. Centuries.
English Miles
0 10 20 30 40 50
Orkney
Aldiarn
Inverness
Culloden
Skye
L. Ness
R. Spey
Alford
R. Don
Aberdeen
R. Dee
Bri. of Dee
Stonehaven
Inverlochy
Killiecrankie
Montrose
R. Tay
Glencoe
Dunkeld
Dundee
Mull
Tippermuir
Perth
St. Andrews
Inverary
R. Forth
Sheriffmuir
Stirling
Dunbar
Kilsyth
Falkirk
Frith
Carberry Hill
Glasgow
EDINBURGH
Prestonpans
Pinkie
Bothwell Bri.
Berwick
Langside
R. Clyde
Lanark
Drumclog
Flodden
Arran
Airds Moss
R. Tweed
Ayr
R. Nith
Dumfries
Solway Moss
IRELAND
Wigtown
ENGLAND
7
6
5
4
3
2
58
57
56
55

when Elizabeth died the two crowns were united in one person. The two nations so long apparently hopeless enemies, became reconciled, and James VI. of Scotland became James I. of England.

Union of the Crowns.

XXI.—ELIZABETH AND THE ARMADA.

Elizabeth's reign is striking from whatever point of view we look at it. It sees the establishment of the English Church, and the preparing of the way for the union of the crowns of England and Scotland; it is marked by important social legislation—questions of wages, of coinage, of poor relief, are all dealt with, and upon the whole successfully; it is the age of the great poets, Shakespeare and Spenser. Any one of these things would be enough to stamp a reign as remarkable. Yet there is something beyond all this; for it is in this reign that British policy, as we know it, is settled. Britain is to be strong at sea, and to spread her power over distant colonies.

British Maritime Policy.

There was nothing in Mary Tudor's reign that made Englishmen feel more shame than the loss of Calais. It had been in English hands since the days of Edward I.; it seemed disgraceful to lose it. But in truth Calais was no longer of any use. The old policy of trying to conquer territory from the King of France was dead and gone. Even the enmity was gone too. Englishmen no longer hated France, but Spain. And Spain being strong at sea and in the New World, England had to look to her fleets. Since we had to fight against a maritime and colonial power,

Hostility to Maritime Spain makes England Maritime.

we became maritime and colonial ourselves in doing it.

Although in name Elizabeth did not go to war with Spain till 1587, yet in reality all her reign was one long war. The war differed from any war England had fought before, since it went on, far from Europe, in the Spanish main, and on American shores. It was not called war; neither Queen nor Parliament admitted its existence. It was the work of the Adventurers—merchants and nobles who sent out ships to the Spanish main, ready to trade or plunder as might be most convenient. The Adventurers were not indeed strait-laced. Hawkins, for example, thought nothing of taking slaves from Africa to the Spanish settlements, and compelling the Spaniards, by force of arms, to buy them. But still the slave-trader Hawkins and the buccaneers were the forerunners of the makers of our empire. They went where gain drew them, reckless of danger; and where they went British power followed.

The Adventurers.

Francis Drake stands as an example of all that was best in the Adventurers. He feared no odds against him; he it was who led seventy desperate Englishmen to attack the fortified Spanish town of Nombré de Dios in Central America—the Treasure House of the World as it was called, since the Spaniards sent thither all the silver they collected—and took it; he, again, crossed the isthmus of Panama, and surprised trains of mules laden with Spanish silver; he, too, was the first Englishman to sail into the Pacific. The Spaniards had thought themselves safe there. Drake came down on them like a thunderbolt from a clear sky, sacked the towns of Lima and Callao, captured a

Drake.

great galleon laden with treasure, and then continued his daring voyage round the world. He came back to England after four years with more treasure than ever had been brought before. It was vain for Philip the Spanish king to complain to Elizabeth that Drake was a pirate. Elizabeth might promise redress, but she never gave it. On the contrary, she accepted a share in Drake's plunder.

The Armada, 1588.

For many years the King of Spain did not do anything open against Elizabeth. He encouraged those who wished to murder her, but to take an open part against her would have thrown England on the side of his rival France. But when Mary died she left her claims on the throne of England to the King of Spain. Philip therefore declared war; it was decided to send a huge fleet, the "Invincible Armada", to England, and conquer it once and for all.

The Armada set sail in 1588. That it had not started the year before was due to Drake, who had sailed into Cadiz harbour and set on fire all the ships laden with stores which had been collected there. He called his exploit "singeing the King of Spain's beard". Great as was the damage he did, it was repaired by the industry of the Spaniards. All was carefully arranged: the Duke of Medina-Sidonia was placed in command; the Armada was to sail up the Channel and pick up the Spanish army from Flanders. Then it was thought that to land it in England and conquer Elizabeth would be child's play. The Spanish troops were the best in Europe; and no Spaniard dreamed that English ships could possibly resist the Armada. Philip trusted also that the English Catholics would fight for him instead of for their Protestant queen.

Never did man make a more gigantic mistake. Catholics and Protestants alike thronged to the army which Elizabeth collected at Tilbury. The fleet itself was put under the command of a Catholic, Howard of Effingham. Elizabeth knew her people. "Let tyrants fear!" said she; "I am come amongst you to lay down my life for my God and for my kingdom and for my people. I know I have the body but of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and of a king of England too, and think foul scorn that Spain or any prince of Europe should dare to invade the borders of my realm." Good as the Spanish troops were, it may well be doubted if they would have found England so easy a prey as they expected.

Preparations in England.

They were not destined to have the chance of trying. England had another line of defence, her right arm, her navy. The Armada had to reckon with that first.

When the news was brought to Plymouth that the Armada had been sighted, in mighty array, stretching over seven miles of sea, the English commanders were ready, but there was no haste or confusion. Drake, engaged at the time in a game of bowls on the Hoe at Plymouth, cried, "Let us finish this first; time enough to beat the Spaniards afterwards". When the English ships got to sea, they hung on the heels of the Spaniards on their leisurely way up the Channel. They were more than a match for their big opponents; they could sail faster and manœuvre better; they were much better shots, for in truth the Spaniards fired so high that most of their powder was wasted.

The Struggle in the Channel.

For a week the two fleets battled; a week of such

anxiety was never known in England before or since. It was clear that the Armada could not beat the English; but could Howard and the captains under him beat the Armada? Some Spanish ships had been sunk, yet the Armada was still a mighty fleet when it reached Calais. So far it was successful.

The Armada at Calais.

Here, however, the plan broke down. Parma and the Spanish troops were being kept close prisoners, blockaded by the Dutch ships. Without an army Philip's invasion was impossible.

Yet Howard saw that the Spaniards could not be left to rest at Calais. Parma might come overland and join them. Accordingly fire-ships were got ready, smeared with tar and loaded with gunpowder, and at nightfall set drifting into Calais harbour. As, flaming and exploding, they drew near the Spaniards, the Armada was thrown into confusion and stood out to sea. Wind and waves rose, driving the Spaniards first towards the Dutch coast and then northwards. Drake followed them far up into the North Sea; he would have gone farther, but powder was running short on his ships. Still, his part was done: storms did the rest. Ship after ship of the Armada was cast ashore on the Scottish and Irish coasts. The mighty fleet that had numbered 150 vessels when it left Spain, returned with 54 battered hulks.

The Fire-ships.

The Armada driven Northwards and Destroyed by Storms.

The victory was striking and complete. It saved England from all fear of invasion. But it did much more than that; it determined the future of England. Our interests were no longer bounded by our own isle. Even before the Armada Englishmen had planned settlements in America. It was left, indeed, to the

next reign to establish them. Henceforward, however, English interests were on the ocean and abroad. We shall see England, after overcoming Spain at sea, master in turn Holland and France. Our seamen have read Europe many lessons on the value of sea-power. No more effective one was ever given than that afforded by the story of the Armada.

XXII.—THE STUARTS AND THEIR DIFFICULTIES.

James I., 1603-1625; Parliament.

With the reign of James I. we enter on a new period. Hitherto interest has centred round the king, or round the Church, or round the nobles, or in war. Now a new matter eclipses all the others. Everyone's eyes are fixed upon Parliament. Parliament displays quite new vigour. Under the Lancastrian kings it had been too weak to keep the nobles in order; under the Tudors it was too anxious for a strong king to care to oppose him. But in the time of the Stuarts we see Parliament engage in struggles with the king, and come out in the end the victor. We are, indeed, at the beginning of the modern system, by which it is no longer the crown that rules, but Parliament.

Quarrels between the Stuarts and Parliament.

It was natural, then, that the Stuarts, who expected to rule as the Tudors had done—that is to say, despotically, without consulting Parliament—should find themselves in difficulties. James I. disagreed with his Parliaments. His son, Charles I., quarrelled with them even more, and at last actual war began. Three main grounds of quarrel may be distinguished: (1) over

religion at home; (2) over religious matters abroad; (3) over the right of the king to take money and govern without Parliament.

1. James had been brought up in Scotland as a Presbyterian, but he changed over to the Church of England. He was not, however, a bigot by nature. What he wanted was that men should, as far as possible, agree to accept him as head of the Church. This claim was disagreeable to the Catholics, who regarded the pope as the head of the Church, and also to the English Puritans and the Scottish Presbyterians, who thought the Church should govern itself. All chance of liberty of worship for Catholics was soon put out of the question by the violence of a few murderous traitors. Catesby, Percy, Sir Everard Digby, and some others formed an atrocious plot to blow up king, Lords, and Commons assembled in Parliament; to this they added a wild scheme of raising a rebellion, seizing James's daughter Elizabeth, bringing her up as a Catholic, and placing her on the throne. The secret leaked out; the cellars below Parliament were searched, and Guy Fawkes was found in the midst of his powder barrels. The leaders of the plot were either shot down or executed. For the whole Roman Catholic party the result was disastrous. During long years afterwards everyone regarded them as traitors at heart.

Religion at Home.

Gunpowder Plot, 1605.

The Puritans also came to dislike the king more and more. At the beginning of the reign they presented a great petition against certain ceremonies of the Church; they did not wish to use a ring in marriage, or the sign of the cross in baptism. But the king did not yield. He fell much into the hands of the bishops, for he claimed

The Puritans.

to rule by divine right, and it was the clergy and the bishops who were the most thorough-going supporters of this claim. Hence James's saying, "No bishop no king". It is easy to see that this attitude was much disliked among his Scottish subjects, who hated bishops. Indeed James's Scottish bishops had very little power, and received very little obedience.

Religious Policy Abroad.

2. James managed to offend the religious feelings of a large number of his subjects as much by his foreign policy as by his acts at home. He wished to be a great peace-maker in Europe; with this object he strove hard to arrange a marriage between his son Charles and the Infanta, the Princess of Spain. James's subjects hated Spain. They were much more ready to fight her than to make an alliance. They remembered the days of Mary Tudor, and they hated the idea of another Spanish match. The marriage, indeed, fell through, and instead Charles married Henrietta Maria, sister of the French king. She, too, was disliked, because she was a Roman Catholic; it was feared that she might convert her husband, or at any rate bring him to favour English Roman Catholics. This belief, although not true, did much to make Charles's subjects distrust him. And even when James and Charles did act, as the nation wished to see them act, on the Protestant side, they were very unsuccessful. James's daughter Elizabeth married the leader of the German Protestants, Frederick the Elector Palatine; but Frederick was turned out of his dominions by the Spaniards, and James could not recover them for him, either by treaty or by fighting. And Charles sent a fleet under Buckingham to help the French Protestants at La Rochelle against the

Marriages.

King of France, but it was beaten off, and returned in disgrace.

3. The most bitter quarrels, however, were with Parliament. James held that kings reigned by divine right; their power was given them from on high; they were "the Lord's anointed", and resistance to them was sinful. Thus James, and Charles after him, thought it to be beneath their dignity to defer to Parliament. Yet according to the constitution Parliament alone had the power of granting money, and without money a king was in a sorry position. Both James and Charles tried to override Parliament by the use of the king's power—what was called the "Royal Prerogative". Unluckily for them, the Puritan and Presbyterian party was strong in Parliament, and these, already angered by James's fondness for bishops and his hankerings after a Roman Catholic marriage for his son, were by no means inclined to give way about money.

Divine Right.

In the struggles between James and Charles and their Parliaments two main points may be remarked: (1) Parliament was resolved to prevent the king from raising money on his own authority; (2) it strove also to make his ministers responsible for what they did.

Question of Supplies.

Thus in James's reign the Commons objected to the grants of monopolies, by which some friend of the king was given the sole right of selling an article, and could in consequence put a high price on it. In Charles's reign they went further. Instead of giving the king certain taxes for life, they only gave them for two years; and when Charles tried to collect them without leave, they made him accept the Petition of Right, which declared that to take taxes except by leave of Parliament was illegal.

Petition of Right, 1628.

and that no one should be imprisoned without trial by command of the king. Thus the two most important clauses of Magna Carta were solemnly repeated.

Impeachment of Ministers.

Again, Parliament attacked the king's ministers. The Lord Chancellor Bacon was impeached for taking bribes; the Earl of Middlesex was impeached for misusing public money; the Duke of Buckingham was impeached for failing in the war against Spain. This "impeaching" was a system whereby the Commons accused a man before the Lords as judges. In those days it was the only way to get rid of a king's minister who was disliked. Never before had Parliament interfered so much with the king's ministers.

The Eleven Years' Tyranny, 1629–1640.

In the first four years of his reign Charles had three Parliaments, and quarrelled with them all. Then he decided to do without Parliament, and for eleven years no Parliament met. Men called it the Eleven Years' Tyranny. Charles's ministers ruled the country for him. Strafford was sent to Ireland, where he drilled an Irish army, and persuaded the Irish Parliament to vote the king money. Lawyers, such as Noy and Finch, set to work to revive old practices by which the king could get money without asking Parliament for it. For example, they advised him to collect "ship-money", a tax which had fallen on sea-coast counties to provide a fleet in time of war. Charles imposed it in time of peace on inland counties. A squire named John Hampden refused to pay it, saying it was illegal since Parliament had not voted it. The case was tried, but the judges were afraid of the king, for he could remove them from their posts if he was displeased with them, so they decided against Hampden. The Court of Star Chamber in-

Ship-money.

flicted heavy fines on all who wrote or spoke against the king; the High Commission Court dealt in the same way with the Puritans. Men were tried before these courts without a jury, and were often condemned to have their ears cropped or to be cruelly flogged. Archbishop Laud ruled the Church, and tried to establish the worship of the Church of England all over Charles's dominions.

Star Chamber.

This, however, proved fatal to Charles's plan of absolute rule. With the very strictest care it was only just possible for him to get money enough to carry on the government in time of peace. If a war was to break out, it was clear that he would be forced to call a Parliament to vote money for it. We shall see that Laud's action did provoke a war, and with that war the Eleven Years' Tyranny came to an end.

XXIII.—WAR BETWEEN KING AND PARLIAMENT.

In spite of James's efforts to set up bishops in Scotland, the Scottish Church had practically done as it pleased. It was governed by an assembly; it did not keep the feasts of the English Church such as Easter and Christmas; and its ministers prayed as they chose instead of using the service-book. Charles, egged on by Laud, made up his mind to reduce the Presbyterians to obedience. He caused a service-book to be prepared, and bade the Scottish ministers to use it.

Charles's Service-book in Scotland.

What happened is well known. Everyone remembers Jenny Geddes, who cried out in the Church of St. Giles at Edinburgh, "Wilt thou say mass at my

lug!" and flung a stool at the clergyman's head. It was a homely act, but it marked the beginning of the downfall of a king. Resistance spread fast in Scotland. Bodies of men called the "Tables" were organized to consider what course to take. Henderson and Johnston of Warriston drew up the Covenant by which the oath was taken to defend the Scottish form of worship. Speedily it became clear that Scotland was in revolt. If Charles was to regain his power it must be by war.

The Covenant.

War then became inevitable; but Charles was from the first doomed to failure. Yet failure meant another Parliament; the meeting of another Parliament meant the downfall of Charles's absolute government. All fell out as his wisest ministers had foreseen: Charles had no regular troops and no officers, while Alexander Leslie could muster 16,000 Scots, many of whom were tried soldiers. In the first campaign Charles dared not strike a blow; in the second his raw levies fled before the Scottish Covenanters at Newburn. The Scots marched into Yorkshire, and Charles had to beg for a truce. The Scottish victory in this "Bishops' war" was the first step in the final triumph of Parliament over the king.

The Bishops' War, 1639–1640.

In 1640 Charles called two Parliaments. The first, the "Short" Parliament, was fairly friendly to him, but he was unwise enough to dismiss it. The second, which was not finally dissolved for nineteen years, and thus gained the name of the "Long" Parliament, was the body that was destined to see him dethroned and beheaded.

The Long Parliament.

No such violent ideas entered the heads of the members at first. Led by Pym and Hampden, they were bent on reform; they intended to make Charles rule according to the

Reform; Execution of Strafford.

law. Therefore they swept away the Star Chamber and the High Commission Court; they passed a bill that Parliament was to meet every three years; they declared all the king's plans for raising money without leave of Parliament illegal. Of one man only they determined to make an example. This was Charles's chief minister, Strafford. To find ground for condemning him was not easy. At last it was shown that he had said to Charles, "Your majesty has an army in Ireland which you may employ here to reduce *this kingdom*". Strafford urged that *this kingdom* referred to rebellious Scotland. His enemies took it to mean England, and Strafford was voted to be a traitor, and executed. It is hard to say that the act was just, but Parliament felt that he was too dangerous to be allowed to live. "Stone dead hath no fellow" was the opinion of many about Strafford.

The king's illegal powers had been destroyed. He had promised to amend. Moderate men thought enough had been done; they were not inclined to press him too hard. But Charles was, throughout all his life, his own worst enemy. Just when he was beginning to be trusted, he showed that he was quite unworthy of trust. Followed by a band of armed attendants he went down to the House of Commons to arrest by force Pym, Hampden, and three others, who were the chief leaders against him. He failed; the members had had timely warning. As he said himself, "the birds had flown". But this could lead but to one thing—war between King and Parliament. Promises were useless, the matter had to be fought out.

Arrest of the five Members.

The Civil war falls into three periods. In the first the king had the upper hand. His followers were

ENGLAND
16th and 17th Centuries
English Miles.
0 10 20 30 40 50 60
SCOTLAND
FRANCE
EDINBURGH
Glasgow
Kilsyth
Dunbar
Berwick
Dunse Law
Philiphaugh
Flodden
Newburn
Newcastle
Carlisle
Ripon
Marston Moor
York
Preston
Hull
Manchester
Gainsborough
Chester
Lincoln
R. Trent
Nantwich
Newark
Derby
Nottingham
Shrewsbury
Tutbury
Leicester
R. Severn
Naseby
Fotheringay
Norwich
Warwick
Holmby House
Worcester
Edge Hill
Northampton
Newmarket
Copredy Bridge
Cambridge
Hereford
Gloucester
Oxford
Colchester
Chalgrove
Brentford
LONDON
Pembroke
Bristol
Newbury
Reading
R. Thames
Chatham
Sheerness
Maidstone
Canterbury
Dover
Bridgwater
Sedgemoor
Taunton
Southampton
Stratton
Exeter
Lyme
Poole
Portsmouth
Carisbrook
Plymouth
Torbay
Land's End
Scilly Isles
4
2
0
54
52
50

naturally better soldiers, more used to horses and arms than were the citizens who made up the Parliamentary armies. Charles, too, had a dashing cavalry leader, his nephew, Prince Rupert, whose charges bore down his opponents' ranks. The Parliament fought hard, but steadily lost ground. Once the king drew quite close to London, but he did not dare to attack in force. None the less he seemed to be on the point of triumphing.

War; Royalists at first successful.

Pym saw that help must be got from somewhere, so he made an alliance with Scotland. The Parliament signed the Solemn League and Covenant, promising to establish Presbyterianism in England, and the Scots were to send an army to help against Charles. The alliance was easy to make, for most of the Parliamentary party at the time favoured the Presbyterian system. This "throwing of the Scotch sword into the balance" turned the scale against Charles. His generals, Rupert and Newcastle, were utterly beaten at Marston Moor. All the north was lost to the king.

Pym gets help from the Scots.

Marston Moor.

Marston Moor, however, was not so much a triumph for the Scots, who did not do a great deal towards the victory, as for an English Roundhead named Oliver Cromwell. Cromwell had raised a regiment of his own. He saw that discipline and zeal alone could beat the loyalty of the Cavaliers. His troopers were well-drilled, terrible fighters, who earned for themselves the name of Cromwell's Ironsides. They were godly men also, who thought themselves to be a chosen people fighting the Lord's battles against the Cavaliers, whom they called the Philistines. Cromwell was not a Pres-

Cromwell and the Ironsides.

byterian, but an Independent. He thought all should be allowed to worship as they pleased; consequently all the sects looked up to him as their leader. Further, since Pym and Hampden, the first great leaders, were both dead, Cromwell had no rival. When by the Self-denying Ordinance Parliament voted that its members were no longer to hold posts in the army, a special exception was made in favour of Cromwell. Thus he was bound to become the most powerful man in the realm, for he was the one link between Parliament and the army. And when in 1645 Parliament gave him the task of forming a New Model army, he included many of his friends, the Independents, in it. All the officers were Independents. Thus the New Model became the army of the sects, a church in arms. Cromwell was not a man for half-measures like the early Parliamentary leaders. "If I met the king in battle," he said, "I would fire my pistol at him as I would at any other man." His army met the king at Naseby, and routed him so completely that Charles had scarcely a regiment left. [1645.]

The Independent Army.

One last flicker of hope remained for the king. He was beaten in England; but in Scotland Montrose, marching from the Highlands, had overthrown every force the Covenanters could bring against him. In one year he won five victories; there was nothing to prevent him from marching into England. His Highlanders, however, scattered; they could not stand a long campaign. Thus deprived of half his army, Montrose was surprised on a misty morning by David Leslie at Philiphaugh, and routed.

Montrose.

Charles, being now without supporters, surrendered

to the Scots at Newark. But he could not grant what they wanted, namely, the establishment of Presbyterianism, and he annoyed them by his shuffling, so they gave him up to Parliament. Parliament in return promised to discharge the Scottish arrears of pay.

Charles Surrenders to the Scots, and is given up to Parliament.

Charles was not sorry to be free from the Scots. He knew that between the Independent Army and the Presbyterian Parliament there was no love lost. He thought that by playing off one against the other, he might get back his power. Unluckily he only made each party distrust him more and more, and to make matters worse war broke out again. There was a rising of Royalists in Kent and Essex, while Hamilton, with a body of Scots who dreaded the power of Cromwell and the Army, invaded Lancashire. Cromwell marched north and defeated Hamilton at Preston. But this fresh outburst of war made the Ironsides think that there could be no peace while the king was alive, and the army came back to London, resolved to call "that man of blood, Charles Stuart," to account.

2nd Civil War.

It is important to notice that the final measure, the execution of the king, was the work of the Independent party, the Army, headed by Cromwell. Parliament would not agree to bring the king to trial till Cromwell sent down a file of musketeers to the House and turned out the moderate Presbyterian members. The court that tried Charles was made up chiefly of Independents. The great mass of Englishmen was opposed to his execution. Scotland, as we shall see, was driven into war by it. The king's dignified behaviour on the scaffold made many men think him a

Death of the King the Work of the Army, 1649.

martyr. But for the time the Army was supreme. There was none left who could resist it.

XXIV.—BRITAIN GOVERNED BY AN ARMY.

So far from making things more simple, Charles I.'s execution only led to more confusion. Many Englishmen thought the execution little better than a murder, but Parliament and the Army had seemed to agree about it, and for the moment nothing could be done against them. Yet while in England the office of king was abolished, and a Commonwealth set up in its place, both Scotland and Ireland recognized the king's son as King Charles II., and were ready to fight for him. Hence, for the present, Parliament had to support the Army, in order that it might subdue its enemies.

Result of the King's Execution.

The turn of Ireland came first. Cromwell went over with his Ironsides. The Irish troops held the town of Drogheda against him. The town was stormed, and Cromwell bade his men give no quarter. All the defenders were massacred. This violent and ruthless act so terrified the Irish that after it little resistance was made. Charles II.'s general and soldiers were driven from the country. The Irish Parliament was abolished, and instead Irish members were to be sent to Westminster.

Ireland.

Scotland, however, cost Cromwell more trouble. There two parties were trying to come to an agreement with Charles II. The Presbyterian party was willing to have him back if he would take the Covenant. Montrose offered to restore him the kingdom, by the aid of a Highland

Scotland; Death of Montrose.

army, without any conditions. Charles tried Montrose first. But when Montrose landed in Scotland and began to gather the clansmen he was defeated and captured. No one could forgive him for the cruelty which his Highlanders had shown in his former rising, so he was put to death.

Charles then fell back on the Covenanters, headed by Argyll. He came to Scotland and took the Covenant. Cromwell at once made ready an army to invade Scotland, but David Leslie, who commanded the Scots, was every whit as able a soldier as Cromwell. He laid waste the country north of Berwick through which Cromwell would have to march, and retired to a strong position near Edinburgh. Cromwell tried to tempt him from it, but in vain. At last, wearied out by want of food and long marching, the Ironsides fell back to Dunbar. Leslie followed, drew up his army on Doon Hill overhanging the Dunbar Road, and seized the defile at Cockburnspath, which cut off Cromwell's retreat. Cromwell appeared to be in a trap. It was hopeless to attack the Scots on Doon Hill, since they numbered two to one. It seemed that he must surrender, or retreat into his ships. Suddenly the Scots threw away the victory that was almost won. Fearing that Cromwell was embarking his men, and would so slip through his fingers, Leslie ordered an attack. Cromwell saw the mistake. "The Lord hath delivered them into my hands", he cried. The Ironsides fell on the Scottish right wing, and rolled it back in confusion on the centre; soon Leslie's whole force gave way. In the pursuit the Scottish army was almost destroyed.

Charles II. and the Covenanters; Dunbar, 1650.

All Scotland south of the Forth fell into Cromwell's hands as the fruit of his victory. Leslie, however,

gathered another force, and entrenched himself near Stirling. Cromwell crossed the Firth of Forth and began to ravage Fifeshire. This left the road to England open, and Charles promptly took it. At the head of 18,000 men he marched south. The Ironsides were soon at his heels. He was headed off from the London road, and at last brought to bay at Worcester. The battle which followed Cromwell called his "crowning mercy". Charles's men were scattered; the king himself had to flee for his life; for six weeks he wandered about in hourly peril. At last he escaped to France.

Battle of Worcester, 1651.

Meanwhile with the last Scottish army thrown away in England, Monk, whom Cromwell had left to command in his place, had an easy task. The country was subdued, even the Highlands were pacified. The Scottish Parliament was done away with, though it was restored at the Restoration.

Abolition of Scottish Parliament.

Cromwell and his army of Independents seemed invincible. They had conquered the Royalists, Presbyterian Scotland, and Catholic Ireland. They had laid low a king and two Parliaments. Now we shall see them continue their work by subduing the English Parliament also.

Part of the work indeed had been done already, when Colonel Pride, by Cromwell's orders, had "purged" Parliament of the ninety leading Presbyterians who opposed the king's trial. But even the "Rump", as the remaining members were contemptuously called, fell to quarrelling with the Army. Cromwell wished them to dissolve and call a new Parliament; they refused, unless it was laid down that they were all to have seats in the new Parliament; they also

The "Rump" Dissolved by the Army.

urged that the Army should be disbanded. At last Cromwell lost patience. He went down to the House himself, banged his fist on the table, and bawled out, "Get you gone! Give place to honester men." His soldiers poured in and turned out the members by force.

This was one way of settling the question, but it was not the right way. King had gone and House of Lords had gone; the House of Commons was the last relic of legal government left. Now that had gone too, destroyed by military violence. Many people had despised the "Rump", but they did not approve of this way of getting rid of it. Consequently, none of Cromwell's later schemes for new Parliaments were ever successful. He tried first an assembly of "faithful persons, fearing God and hating covetousness", recommended by ministers throughout the country. These were called in mockery "Barebone's Parliament", from the name of one of the members, "Praise-God" Barbon. This assembly soon resigned its power to its maker, Cromwell. Thrice again, under different arrangements, Parliaments were called, but with none of them could Cromwell get on. Having destroyed the proper Parliament, it was impossible to get sham ones to work satisfactorily.

Failure of Cromwell's Parliaments.

Thus the government fell into the hands of Cromwell; he had a Council of State to help him, and one of his constitutions had given him the title of Protector, but his real power rested on the Army. He could not afford to quarrel with it, and thus he refused to take the title of king, because the Army hated the idea of a king. The result was that Cromwell, having taken arms for a Parliament against a despotic king, became himself in the end more

Cromwell a Despot.

despotic than ever Charles I. had been. He ruled without Parliament; he took taxes without Parliament; his major-generals, who governed various parts of Britain, were more absolute than Strafford himself at the height of his power.

England had become a military state. It had overthrown Ireland and Scotland. It made war on the Dutch Republic. Blake and Monk, both by profession soldiers, soon proved themselves excellent sailors. The Dutch fleets were defeated, and the Dutch forced to beg for peace. Cromwell wished to put himself at the head of a great League of Protestants in Europe, and he allied himself with France, because France though Catholic was a bitter enemy of Spain. English fleets took Jamaica, and captured Spanish treasure-galleons as they had done in Elizabeth's reign. Cromwell's death, however, put an end to these ambitious schemes.

He left his power to his son Richard, but Richard was not a soldier, and the Army would not obey him. In a short time it appeared that the Army would obey no one; the "Rump" was recalled, and again expelled. Everyone hated the Army, but no one could suggest a means of getting rid of it.

Death of Cromwell; Disunion in the Army.

Fortunately the Army was not united. Monk marched southwards from Scotland with his men; Lambert at the head of another section of Ironsides tried to stand against him and failed. Monk reached London, and to everyone's joy declared for a free Parliament. This meant the recall of Charles II., for all alike, Cavaliers and Parliamentarians, had grown united in their hatred of the Army, and were ready to welcome back a lawful king. The Convention Parliament, which

Monk and the Restoration.

Monk caused to be summoned, immediately invited the king back. On his way towards London he passed at Blackheath the real masters of England, a sullen and mutinous mass of soldiery; but they could find no leader; their day was past.

XXV.—FROM THE RESTORATION TO THE REVOLUTION.

To understand the reigns of Charles I.'s two sons, Charles II. and James II., we must bear in mind the following main facts:—

1660–1689; Main Facts.

1. Both kings are Roman Catholics: Charles a secret Catholic and James an open one. Each tries to get liberty of worship for the Catholics, and if possible to restore Roman Catholicism in England.

2. The great majority of Englishmen are members of the National Church. Those who still cling to the Presbyterian form of Church government, together with the Independents and other small sects, begin to be known as "Dissenters". They are not allowed to meet for public worship, and are otherwise hardly dealt with by Parliament. To gain their support by offering them toleration is a principal object of both kings.

3. All Europe feels itself in danger from the growing power of France under Louis XIV. The leader of the Grand Alliance against France is Charles II.'s nephew, William of Orange, who wishes to get Britain on his side. On the other hand, Louis XIV. tries to get Britain as his ally, or, if he cannot manage that, to keep Britain so distracted with quarrels at

home that it cannot interfere against him. Further, it is easy for Louis XIV. to exercise influence with our kings, because both Charles and James are his cousins.

4. Parliament begins by supporting the king; but, as he favours the Catholics, it turns against him. It would like to see him fight for William of Orange against France, but does not dare to trust him with a standing army. Everyone remembered what Cromwell's army had done.

5. The Church supports the Crown more steadily than Parliament. It fears the Puritan party, and therefore teaches that resistance to a king is sinful. It is not till James II. makes an open attack on Protestantism that the Church wavers in its friendship for the Royal power.

We may now go on to remark some of the chief events in the course of this second struggle between Crown and Parliament, which ended, as the first had done, in the overthrow of a king.

Charles II. was wiser than his father. At bottom he was resolved to do nothing that should, to use his own words, "make him go on his travels again". He was also in a stronger position, because Parliament, in the first enthusiasm of the Restoration, had voted him a revenue for life. Indeed the Parliament that was elected in 1661 was so warmly Royalist that it was called the "Cavalier" Parliament. Charles knew that he would never get another which would be so friendly, so he kept it sitting for eighteen years, and by bribing some members and making friends of others, could generally make it do what he wished. Thus, whereas up to 1640 men had grumbled because Parliaments sat too little, now they complained that the same Parliament sat too long.

Charles II., 1660–1685.

Charles's first minister was Clarendon, a strong friend of the Church of England. He persecuted the Dissenters; he made laws against conventicles, and forbade those who would not conform and the deprived Puritan clergy to hold any office, to teach, or to come within five miles of a town. The end of his ministry was disastrous. First came the Great Plague in London. So fast did the people die that huge plague-pits had to be dug to bury the dead in, hundreds together. All who could, fled from London, grass grew in the streets, rows of houses were shut up, and the red cross marked on the doors showed that the plague was within them. In the next year came the Great Fire, which burned St. Paul's, eighty-eight churches, and two-thirds of London. Perhaps even worse was the day when, for the only time in the history of England, the roar of enemy's cannon was heard in the city. Charles had neglected the fleet; he had spent the money upon his own pleasures instead. A Dutch fleet sailed up the Thames, burnt the shipping at Chatham, and, had it dared, might have bombarded the capital. Never since has our naval renown been so low. The Dutch admiral hoisted a broom at his mast-head to signify that he had swept the English fleet from the sea.

The Plague, 1665.

The Dutch in the Medway, 1667.

Clarendon was disgraced. Charles's new ministry was called the Cabal, a term which denotes an inner council of ministers. The two chief men in it were Roman Catholics. Here we have a step onward in Charles's plot to restore Catholicism. He made the Treaty of Dover with Louis XIV., by which Louis promised money and an army. Then Charles issued a Declaration of Indulgence, which did away with the penal laws

The Cabal and the Declaration of Indulgence.

against both Catholics and Dissenters. He hoped that the latter would be so pleased to get freedom of worship that they would not mind the same relief being given to the Roman Catholics.

Charles was wrong; the Dissenters did not love the Church of England, but they feared Catholics much more. The Declaration united all Protestants against the king. Parliament declared it to be grossly illegal, since it was a law made without their consent. To lull the storm Charles withdrew the Declaration.

Still Parliament and the Protestants were not satisfied. They passed the Test Act, by which everyone holding office under the Crown was to take the sacrament according to the rites of the English Church. They pressed on a marriage between James's daughter Mary and William of Orange.

The Test Act.

Charles agreed to this to stay the hostile feeling against the Catholics, but in vain. Suddenly an idea sprang up that the Catholics were actually plotting against English liberty and the Church. A wretch named Titus Oates swore that he had found out such a plot. He told his story to a London magistrate, and soon after this man's dead body was found in a ditch. Everyone believed he had been murdered by the Catholics. Men thought the days of the Gunpowder Plot were coming again. Oates's lies were taken as proof against any Catholic. Other informers rivalled him in inventing stories. No jury would accept a Catholic's evidence; in the eyes of men of that time every Jesuit was an open traitor, every Catholic a conspirator in disguise. Many innocent men were put to death. Even the House of Lords condemned Lord Stafford, old, respected, and absolutely guiltless, and had him executed.

The "Popish Plot".

Nothing would satisfy the Whig or "country" party in their panic. Urged on by Shaftesbury, they tried to exclude James from succeeding to the crown. But here Charles checkmated them. He dissolved Parliament, so that the Exclusion Bill could not be passed, and for the rest of his reign ruled without a Parliament, getting money from Louis XIV. Most men were tired of the violence of the Whigs, who seemed ready to renew the civil war, and were not sorry when the king drove Shaftesbury from the kingdom, and punished many of his most reckless followers.

Failure of the Exclusion Bill.

Thus Charles II. had neither failed altogether nor had he been altogether successful. He had indeed staved off the attack on his brother, but he had not obtained liberties for Catholics. He had tried, and when he saw it was hopeless he had wisely drawn back. He was not a man to push things to extremes.

James II. was more headstrong than his brother. He was openly a Catholic. He meant to rule as an absolute king, and have his own way in matters of religion.

James II., 1685–1689.

An event in the beginning of his reign might have warned him of his danger. The Duke of Monmouth, an illegitimate son of Charles II., landed in Dorsetshire, and put himself at the head of a Protestant rebellion. Numbers of western peasants joined him. He planned a night attack on the Royalist forces sent against him. To reach them he had to march over a portion of Sedgemoor, which is cut by deep ditches. Three of these were safely crossed, but just as he neared the Royalists, a fourth ditch, of which he did not know, was found yawning in front of his men. In the confusion a pistol went

Monmouth Rebellion.

off. The Royal troops were roused, and poured a fire into their helpless enemy. Monmouth's men fought bravely, but as many were only armed with scythes and pikes, they could do little. The artillery and cavalry were brought up to complete the rout. Monmouth was captured soon after, and beheaded.

A terrible vengeance was taken on his followers. Five judges were sent into the west, headed by Jeffreys. Jeffreys was brutal and overbearing. He acted more like an accuser than a judge. He abused and insulted all the prisoners, and bullied juries into condemning them. More than 300 rebels were hanged, 800 more transported to the West Indies, and large numbers flogged, imprisoned, and fined. One poor woman named Alice Lisle was beheaded merely because two rebels had taken shelter in her house. Rightly was the name "the Bloody Assize" given to this circuit.

The Bloody Assize.

Encouraged by the ease with which Monmouth had been overcome, James went on his way. He began to collect a standing army, mainly composed of Irish Catholics, who were hated in England. Not content with this, James even made the Church hostile by thrusting Catholic priests into college offices at Oxford, and he imitated Charles by issuing a second Declaration of Indulgence, and ordering the clergy to read it from their pulpits. When seven bishops petitioned against this, James had them brought to trial, and strove in every way to get them condemned. But though the judges had been appointed by the king, and though the jury felt that they would in all likelihood be punished if they said "Not guilty", yet it was impossible to say that the bishops had committed any crime. So, to the great joy of England, they were acquitted.

Trial of the Seven Bishops.

Thc one thing that had made men bear with James so far was that he had no son, and his heiress, Mary, was a Protestant, and married to the Protestant champion in Europe, William of Orange. It was thought that when James died all would be right again. Just at this time, however, James had a son. Men saw that this son would be bred a Catholic like his father, and that the only way to get rid of them was to turn James off the throne.

Thus an invitation was sent by many of the chief nobles to William of Orange, asking him to come to England. He was only too glad. He landed with an army in Devonshire. It soon became clear, not only that he would win, but that he would win without fighting a battle. James's ministers, generals, and soldiers deserted him wholesale. At last William drew near London. James was at one time in his hands, but William did not wish to keep him a prisoner; on the contrary, he desired to be rid of him; he made it easy for him to escape, and James fled to France. Then a Parliament was summoned which declared William and Mary King and Queen of England, and the Scottish Parliament did the same thing.

Landing of the Prince of Orange.

XXVI.—WILLIAM III. IN BRITAIN.

Nothing shows more clearly how completely James II. had lost the affection of his English subjects than the ease with which William overthrew him. The Cavalier party in England, that had fought four bloody campaigns for his father, let James go without a blow on his behalf. In

William and Mary, 1689–1702.

Scotland and Ireland, however, there was more resistance.

The persecution of Nonconformists had fallen with special bitterness on the Scottish Covenanters. Charles had set up bishops again, had turned the Presbyterian ministers out of their churches, and had employed soldiers to punish all those who attended conventicles, as the open-air meetings were called in which the Covenanters gathered to worship in the way of their fathers. Men, and even women, had been imprisoned and shot down; others, who were rash enough to rebel, were brought before the Council, tortured with the thumbscrew and the boot, and at last hanged—"sent to glorify God in the Grassmarket", as Lauderdale brutally put it. Cruelty only led to violence. Sharpe, the Archbishop of St. Andrews, was murdered before his daughter's eyes by a party of desperate men. A rebellion had followed in the west. The Covenanters had beaten off the royal horse at Drumclog, but had been scattered themselves at Bothwell Bridge. None of the king's officers had been so stern towards the rebels, and none in consequence was so bitterly detested by them, as John Graham of Claverhouse, who was created Viscount Dundee.

Persecution in Scotland.

It was to Dundee that James gave over his power in Scotland. Dundee saw that in the Lowlands nothing could be done for the house of Stuart, but, since William was known to be friendly to Argyll, he thought that the rest of the clans, who hated the Campbells, would rise for King James. He soon was at the head of an army of clansmen. He fell on the Williamite leader, Mackay, at the head of the Pass of Killiecrankie. Mackay's men fired a volley, which failed to check the

Dundee slain at Killiecrankie, 1689.

charge of the Highlanders. While they were fumbling with their clumsy bayonets, which then fitted into the barrel of the musket, the enemy was amongst them. Horse and foot were swept away together: Mackay's force seemed annihilated. Yet in the moment of victory James's cause was lost. Claverhouse—at whom the Covenanters had so often fired silver bullets, muttering prayers that the precious metal would overcome the powers of darkness which they believed to watch over him—lay dying, shot through the breast. Their leader gone, the strength of the Highlanders passed away; the army that had routed Mackay was driven off from Dunkeld by a handful of western Cameronians, and soon after dispersed.

Trouble was over for the time. Unfortunately the deep-seated cause of it, the hatred between the Campbells and the Macdonalds, was only made more bitter by the treacherous massacre of the Macdonalds of Glencoe, the work of Campbells from Argyll's own regiment. It is said that William did not know what was intended, but Dalrymple's order "it will be a proper vindication of justice to extirpate that set of thieves" bears William's own signature, so the king cannot be pronounced guiltless of what was done.

Massacre of Glencoe.

The Highlands took up the Jacobite cause because the Campbells were Williamite. In Ireland the motive was different. The Irish Catholics fought for a king of their own religion because they hoped to make him restore to them all the land that had been forfeited for rebellion and given to Protestant settlers. At first all Ireland was in James's hands, save only the towns of Londonderry and Enniskillen, in which the Protestants, many of

Jacobites in Ireland.

them Scottish Presbyterians, held out stoutly. Londonderry was besieged for 105 days; the defenders were reduced to gnaw hides to keep life in their bodies; a dog's paw was sold for 5s. At length William's ships broke through the boom placed to block the river Foyle, and relieved the town. In the next year William took over an army, and beat James at the battle of the Boyne. James's troops were mostly Irish, who then were far from showing the bravery they have shown since. It was said that "their usual way of fighting was to discharge their pieces once, and then to run away, bawling 'Quarter!' and 'Murder!'" James, however, was not much braver. After the battle he was the first to reach Dublin. He told Lady Tyrconnel, "Your countrymen have run away", and received the stinging answer, "If they have, Sire, your Majesty seems to have won the race". Although James himself gave up in despair, and went to France, the Irish continued to resist, fighting far more stoutly than they had done at the Boyne. The last struggle was at Limerick, where a treaty was made by which William was accepted as king. It was further agreed that the Catholics should enjoy the same liberties as in the reign of Charles II., but this part of the treaty was not kept. The Irish Parliament insisted on persecuting the Catholics, and by doing so increased the national hatred to the English rule. In fact the hostility caused by the breach of this treaty has lasted to our own day.

Siege of Londonderry, 1689.

Battle of the Boyne, 1690.

Treaty of Limerick, 1691.

William was now master of all James's dominions. He used his power wisely and moderately. He would not punish men for their opinions, or for what they had done for James. On one occasion he was given

a list of those who were plotting against him. He put it in the fire without reading it. Britain indeed might be thankful for so generous-minded a king.

The overthrow of James settled the question between King and Parliament for ever. All the claims of Parliament were summed up in the Bill of Rights, which pronounced it illegal for the king to "dispense with" or set aside the laws, to levy money, or to keep a standing army in time of peace, without leave of Parliament. Further, it was declared that Parliament was to be freely elected, and should have liberty to debate about anything it pleased; and, finally, that no Catholic could be king. Henceforward power was in the hands of Parliament. Although William wished to take his ministers from both the Tory and Whig parties, yet in a short time it was recognized that those ministers should have the power whose followers were in a majority in the Commons. Thus we have the beginnings of our modern system of party government; but, as we shall see, a long time was to pass before the system was perfected.

Supremacy of Parliament.

XXVII.—WAR WITH FRANCE. MARLBOROUGH.

The accession of William III. was followed at once by a war with France, which lasted eight years. Nor does this war stand alone; it is the forerunner of many others. Indeed, if we take a general view of the 126 years that lie between the accession of William and the battle of Waterloo we shall find that war goes

Beginning of a New Hundred Years' War with France, 1689–1815.

on almost exactly half the time. There are seven wars which, when added together, take up rather more than sixty years. In the eighteenth century war with France is almost the rule. But if, instead of going 126 years onward from 1688, we look back over the same length of time—that is to say, roughly speaking, to the beginning of Elizabeth's reign, we find quite a different state of affairs. War with France is the exception; in the earlier period there are only two wars with France, lasting three years. It seems very curious that for a century and a quarter we have only three years of war with France, and then for the next century and a quarter we have sixty years of fighting. Why was this so? Why did the wars begin with William III.?

The lapse of time enables us to give an answer to the first question, which would hardly have been accepted in William or Anne's day, and yet was true. Britain was entering upon a second Hundred Years' War with France, not this time for territory in France, but for colonial power. The question really was whether the New World and India should fall into French or British hands. But this only came in sight by degrees; it is hardly visible in William's day; it is not conspicuous in Anne's reign; but fifty years later, when a war between Britain and France led to fighting all over the world, it is obvious.

The War Colonial in Character.

The fact is that William and his English subjects were both at war with France, but for different reasons. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that William's whole life is summed up in enmity to France. France was the leader of the Catholic opposition to Protestantism; she was threatening all Europe by her growing power; espe-

Growing Power of France.

cially was she dangerous to William's native country, Holland. She became, as it were, a big bully, to whom might alone is right. And just at this time a fresh danger appeared. It seemed likely that France would be united with Spain, for Louis's grandson was heir to the Spanish throne. Such a union might give France all the wide Spanish possessions in the New World, and it would upset the balance of power in Europe altogether. William, therefore, set himself to check Louis XIV. by a Grand Alliance; when Britain came under his sway he included Britain, as a matter of course, among the allies. It was, in fact, a master stroke of his policy, for in the previous reigns it had seemed likely that the Catholic Stuarts would take the side of their Catholic cousin, Louis XIV.

Englishmen, however, did not take so wide a view. They made war against France because France helped James II. Louis had received him, had given him a palace and large sums of money, had called him King of England, and had sent his troops to fight on his behalf in Ireland. Britain, therefore, fought against Louis as a Jacobite, not against Louis as a danger to Europe.

This comes out clearly in William's war. It was not very popular, and it was not successful enough to excite enthusiasm. William was always being defeated. It was true that he had generally fewer men, and that he was clever enough to prevent the French generals gaining much by their victories. Yet it was hard to feel proud of a war in which all that could be said was that William had done his best, and that the defeats had not turned out so disastrous as had been expected. In reality it was a great achievement for William to hold his ground

William's War Unpopular.

GENEALOGY OF THE STUARTS.

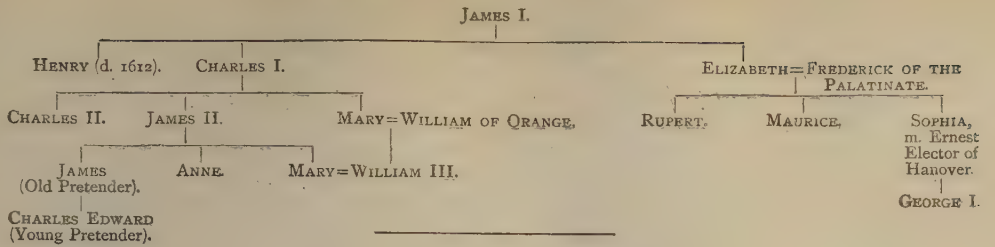
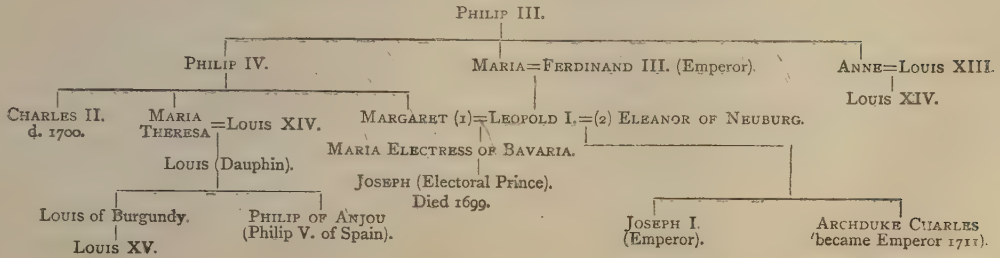


TABLE TO EXPLAIN THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.



at all. But this was not understood; so when Louis made peace at Ryswick, and admitted William's title to be King of England, his British subjects were satisfied that enough had been done. That they had no wish to carry on an eternal war with Louis was shown by the next step which Parliament took; it began to reduce the army, and sent away William's Dutch guards.

Louis Breaks his Promises.

After the Treaty of Ryswick the great powers had agreed upon an elaborate division of the Spanish dominions, by which the French claimant was to get little. Within three years Louis broke through the treaty, and accepted the whole inheritance of Spain for his grandson. William saw there was more urgent need for war than ever before. Parliament, however, would not listen to him. Had Louis been prudent it is likely that Britain would have remained neutral. But Louis took a false step. James II. died, and Louis recognized his son as James III., King of England.

This piece of impudent interference set everyone against him. On all sides war was demanded: it was necessary to avenge the insult, to teach Louis that he could not by his word make or unmake British kings. Thus the war which began in Anne's reign was very different from that of William. It was popular instead of unpopular; and beyond this, it was brilliantly successful instead of being dubious and indecisive; William never won a pitched battle against the French; Marlborough never lost one.

Marlborough.

Much has been written against Marlborough, and with justice. He was greedy for money; he had played the traitor over and over again; he betrayed James II., who had been a good friend to him; he plotted to betray William III.;

he even kept up a correspondence with the Old Pretender while he was commander-in-chief of Anne's armies. One of the blackest deeds in the whole of our history stands against his name. Talmash was sent by William to surprise Brest. Marlborough was jealous of Talmash, and wished him to fail, so he was mean enough to let the French know of the intended attack. They received the English with a tremendous fire, and Talmash was killed.

Yet although Marlborough had some detestable points in his character, he was an admirable general. He was always good-tempered, and thus was able to manage the numerous allies, Dutch and Germans, who formed part of his army. He was cool, brave, wary, resolute. None knew better than he how to arrange his forces for an attack, or how to wield them in battle itself.

Marlborough's first great battle showed what a keen eye for war he possessed. He was commanding the English forces in the Low Countries; he was to protect Holland from a French invasion. But Marlborough knew that the right way to protect it was not by waiting in his lines till the French attacked him; the true course was to strike a great blow at the French wherever a chance appeared. In 1704 a French army was pushed forward down the valley of the Danube, threatening Vienna. Marlborough saw that by marching southward at once he could come down on the French flank, and force it to give up the attack on Vienna. But the march was long: it had to be done speedily and quietly, so as not to give the French warning of what was intended. The Dutch, too, were much alarmed lest they should be attacked by the French while Marlborough was away. Marlborough over-

Battle of Blenheim, 1704.

came all these difficulties. He met the French under Tallard at Blenheim, on the banks of the Danube. The battle was long doubtful, until a great charge of the English cavalry, led by Marlborough himself, at last broke the French centre. The French army was cut in two, and the right wing, hemmed in with the Danube at its back, was forced to surrender. Marlborough wrote to his wife: "The army has won a glorious victory. M. Tallard and two other generals are in my coach, and I am following the rest".

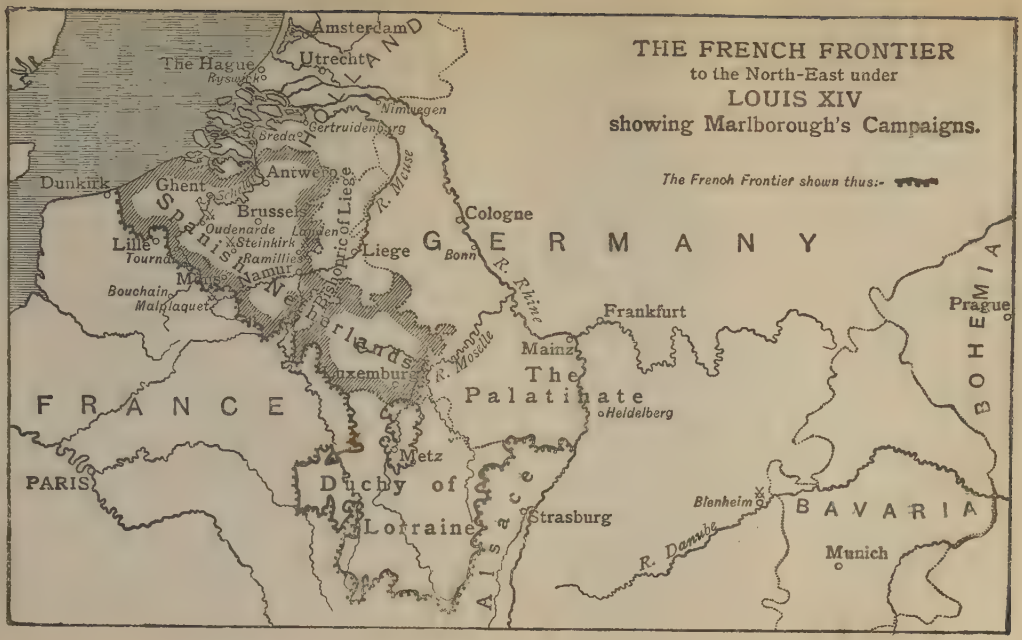
Europe could scarcely believe that the French troops, so long believed invincible, had been routed in this way. It seemed to be an accident. But in the course of the next five years Marlborough showed that it was no accident. He beat the French in three great battles in the Low Countries—Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet. He took all the French fortresses; he even made ready to invade France itself.

Meanwhile, however, England was growing tired of the war. Marlborough had at first been supported by the queen, since Marlborough's wife was the queen's closest friend. But the duchess had a violent, domineering temper, and by degrees Anne took a dislike to her. She made friends instead with a Mrs. Masham, who was in the hands of the Tory party, and the Tory party were anxious for peace.

Treaty of Utrecht, 1713.

At length Marlborough was recalled, and peace was made at Utrecht. The French king promised to leave off supporting the Pretender, and Britain gained Gibraltar, Minorca, Nova Scotia, and St. Kitts, and also the right of shipping slaves to the Spanish colonies.

We remember that the war was begun to keep Louis's grandson, Philip, off the throne of Spain; this object was not attained. Philip became king there


THE FRENCH FRONTIER
to the North-East under
LOUIS XIV
showing Marlborough's Campaigns.
The French Frontier shown thus:-
Amsterdam
Utrecht
The Hague
Rijswijk
HOLLAND
Nimuegen
Gertruidenberg
Breda
R. Meuse
Dunkirk
Ghent
Antwerp
Brussels
Oudenarde
Lauden
Steinkirk
Ramillies
Lille
Tournay
Namur
Mons
Bouchain
Malplaquet
SPANISH NETHERLANDS
Bishopric of Liege
Liege
Cologne
Bonn
R. Rhine
GERMANY
Frankfurt
Mainz
R. Moselle
Luxemburg
The Palatinate
Heidelberg
FRANCE
Metz
PARIS
Duchy of Lorraine
Alsace
Strasburg
Blenheim
BAVARIA
R. Danube
Munich
BOHEMIA
Prague

as Philip V. But Britain had ceased to care about this. Her real aims were now plainly colonial and commercial. We can see this by the gains which she took under the treaty; two ports in the Mediterranean, two colonies in the New World, and a trading privilege that brought much wealth.

XXVIII.—THE UNION OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

England and Scotland.

Ever since James VI. of Scotland had become James I. of England, it was only too plain that great difficulties might arise from the fact that England and Scotland were very loosely joined. Hitherto the two kingdoms had agreed in the main to accept the same sovereign, although, as we have seen, Scotland at one time set up Charles II., while England had a Commonwealth. Both had agreed to obey William and Mary, and after them Anne. Beyond this, agreement ended. The English Parliament chose, as the next heir after Anne, the Electress Sophia, a Protestant, and a granddaughter of James I. It was not, however, certain that the Scots would accept this. Supposing they were to choose someone else, the kingdoms would be again divided.

Discontent in Scotland.

In the beginning of Anne's reign it seemed quite possible that Scotland would insist on breaking up the union of the crowns. The whole nation was in a discontented state. The Jacobites hoped to put James II.'s son, the Old Pretender, on the throne; the Presbyterians feared that the queen might be tempted to overthrow the

establishment of the Presbyterian Church which William III. had promised to maintain; and everyone was furious about the failure of the Darien Scheme.

This Darien Scheme was the invention of a Scot named William Paterson. He had been the founder of the Bank of England. In 1695 he came forward with a proposal that the Scots should form a trading company like the English East India Company, which had been so successful, and plant a colony on the Isthmus of Darien. He hoped that by taking up a position there, where only a narrow strip of land separates the Atlantic from the Pacific, the colony would attract traders from all quarters and soon grow wealthy. He spoke of a fertile soil, and held out hopes of great riches, both from commerce and the search for gold; soon all Scotland grew red-hot over his plan. Everyone who had money hastened to take shares in the company. It is said that nearly one-half of the wealth in the country was invested in it. In 1698 five ships set sail from Leith carrying 1200 colonists, all sure that they were setting out to make their fortunes.

The Darien Scheme.

Their hopes were doomed to bitter disappointment. When the colonists got to Darien, they found the climate fearfully unhealthy. No white man could live there in safety. And besides, both England and Spain were hostile to them. The English were jealous for their own trade. They wished to keep all commerce with English colonies in English hands; if anyone else was prosperous they thought it was at England's expense; they strove more anxiously to destroy a rival's trade than to extend their own. So orders were sent to the English colonial governors to refuse

English and Spanish Jealousy.

even food to the Darien colonists. The Spaniards claimed that the Isthmus of Darien was Spanish territory, and sent soldiers to eject the Scots. Thus all the Scottish plans came to nothing; the first colonists were starved out, and a second expedition, after gallantly defeating one force of Spaniards, had to surrender to superior numbers. The luckless New St. Andrews, which the colonists had built, was abandoned to moulder into decay, a collection of ruined and fire-scorched huts, a burying-ground of innumerable Scottish hopes. Only a few survivors, broken by fever and famine, returned home. All the money was lost. Hundreds of families were ruined.

Failure.

The plan was no doubt rash, but the jealousy of the English government and merchants took away whatever chance it had. It is little wonder that the Scots were furious. That the Spaniards should behave as foes they could understand; but that Englishmen should refuse bread to starving colonists, who were under the same king and spoke the same tongue, was inhuman. So when Anne begged the Scottish Parliament to settle who should succeed to the throne after her, the Scottish Parliament replied by passing the Act of Security, which laid down that no king of England was to be chosen to rule in Scotland unless he would guarantee that for the future Scotsmen should have the same liberties to trade as England enjoyed.

Act of Security.

This caused much anger in England. An act was passed that if the succession was not speedily settled Scotsmen were to be treated as foreigners, that no Scottish goods were to be admitted into England, and that Carlisle, Newcastle, Berwick, and Hull were to be fortified. Troops gathered in the north. It

seemed as if war might break out, and Bannockburn and Flodden be fought over again.

Happily there were wise heads on each side, and they kept cool. Anne's adviser, Godolphin, was ready to give way over the questions of commerce if Scotland would consent to a union. Accordingly an equal number of English and Scottish commissioners were appointed, and in less than four months they came to terms. Of these the chief were— Terms of the Union.

1. That for the future the two countries were to form one realm, Great Britain, with one Parliament sitting at Westminster, and containing forty-five Scottish members in the Commons and sixteen Scottish peers in the Lords.

2. That the Scottish Presbyterian Church and the system of Scottish law were to remain intact.

3. That Scotsmen were to have the same liberties to trade within England, and with English colonies and foreign nations, as Englishmen had.

4. That a sum of money should be paid over to Scotland to be applied to pay off the Scottish National Debt, and relieve those who had lost by the Darien disaster.

It was doubtful for some time whether these terms would be accepted by the Scots. Parliament was on the whole friendly, but the people hated the idea of a union. They thought that their nation was selling itself, and that, whatever England might promise, the Scottish Church and institutions would be in danger. Lord Belhaven bewailed, in a mournful speech, what he took to be the ruin of Scotland. He likened Caledonia's fate to that of Cæsar; he spoke of her sitting helpless, awaiting the fatal stab that would end her life, dealt by her own children.

The Duke of Hamilton and the Jacobites threatened a rising; Edinburgh was in an uproar; the Cameronians of the West were ready to take arms at the call of their ministers. Still, Parliament went steadily on, and at length the treaty was passed.

On May 1st, 1707, the Union took place. All the prophecies of evil turned out to be false. The best answer to Lord Belhaven's gloomy forebodings was that made by Lord Marchmont, "I awoke, and behold it was a dream". Nowadays no one doubts that the Union was wise. It found Scotland a poor country; it has made it a rich one. Scottish enterprise has rivalled that of the sister kingdom; her trade and industry have grown gigantic; her manufactures are found all over the world. Thanks to the excellent system of national education, in which, at the time of the Union, Scotland was far in advance of England, Scotsmen were well able to use the chances that were given them. There is, however, much more than a mere gain in wealth. If before the Union each kingdom had reason to be proud of its national histories, they can now glory every whit as much in the later history of the joint realm of Great Britain. Each had found the other a sturdy foe; since they have agreed to take the same side for ever, both have been the gainers, and the valour displayed at Cambuskenneth, Falkirk, Bannockburn, Flodden, has been more happily employed shoulder to shoulder in the Peninsula, at Waterloo, in the Crimea, in India, for the building up of our great empire.

Effects of the Union.

XXIX.—THE "'FIFTEEN" AND THE "'FORTY-FIVE".

In spite of the Act of Settlement which had declared the House of Hanover to be heirs to the throne, the last few months of Anne's reign were months of great excitement and uncertainty. Bolingbroke was at the head of affairs; he was known to have plotted deeply with the Jacobites and to favour the Pretender. But Anne died before his schemes were ready, and George I. became king without resistance. George I., 1714–1727.

The Jacobites were bitterly disappointed. Anne they had accepted since she was a Stuart, but George I. had very little Stuart blood in him, and indeed was so much a foreigner that he could scarcely speak English. They began at once to meditate rebellion.

The Highlands was clearly the most promising place to begin. Thither the Earl of Mar went, and under pretence of a grand hunting-party, assembled the chiefs of most of the clans and appointed a day for gathering. Mar found the Highlanders as ready as ever to fight, but he himself was no general. He occupied Perth, but he lay there for months doing nothing instead of falling on the royal army under Argyll, which was far smaller than his. The only move he made was to send a division of Highlanders under MacIntosh across the Forth. These threatened Edinburgh, but failed to take it. Then they marched southward and joined a small body of rebels raised by Forster on the border, and Kenmure from Dumfriesshire. After much doubt this handful, numbering at most 3000 men, some even without swords, resolved to invade The "'Fifteen", 1715.

England. They met with no support. No one would join a cause that looked so hopeless. They reached Preston, but were there surrounded by the king's forces under Carpenter and Willis. With the courage of despair they beat off the first attack, but as the town was burning around them they were driven to surrender.

Rising in England.

This was an utter failure, but it becomes almost glorious when we compare it with the contemptible doings of Mar. With 10,000 men, a far larger force than ever Montrose handled, he at last made up his mind to move against Argyll. The armies met at Sheriffmuir. Seeing that Mar had three to one, and further, that his Highlanders were better for a charge than even regular soldiers of the day, Argyll should have been swept away with ease. The Highlanders outflanked his left wing, broke it and chased it off the field; but on the right Argyll's men stood firm, while a small body of horse, crossing a marsh which was hard frozen, charged the Camerons and Stewarts on the flank and overthrew them. The battle now was in a curious state: each right wing was victorious. Mar's men, however, did not risk another attack, and the battle was left drawn. Still, all the fruits of victory were with Argyll. Nothing but success could have saved Mar, and with everything in his favour he had failed. Well might a clansman say as he watched the undecided fight, "O for one hour of Dundee".

Battle of Sheriffmuir, 1715.

The cause was lost. At the moment when it had become hopeless, the Pretender, James Edward, reached Scotland. It was mere mockery for him to call himself King James III. Mar's army was melting away daily, while King George's troops were

being reinforced. Nothing was left for James but to leave the country again without striking a blow. Mar went with him, deserting his army. If he had not done so, his army would speedily have deserted him.

"The Fifteen", as this rising was called, was a model of hopeless mismanagement. No one had any plans; no one seems ever to have really believed that it would succeed. Alone among Highland rebellions it has nothing notable about it. The Highlanders could generally be trusted to win a battle, to do some valiant deed; but the wavering of the leaders must have been shared by the clansmen. The muddle at Sheriffmuir was a fit ending to the whole enterprise.

Thirty years were to pass before the Jacobites made another serious attempt. In these years the Hano-
George II., 1727–1760. verian kings had strengthened their hold on the nation. Men were much less inclined to upset a government that had lasted thirty years than one that was new on the throne. Sir Robert Walpole had given the country years of good
Walpole. and peaceful rule. He had pleased the Scots by bestowing the chief offices in Scotland on Scotsmen. The dislike of the Union was passing away, as its benefits became more apparent. Further, Marshal Wade, who had been sent to command in Scotland after the "'Fifteen", had done much to quiet the Highlands by capturing arms, building forts, and making good roads through the mountains. Yet, in spite of all this, when the "'Forty-five" came, it was far more serious than the "'Fifteen", for the reason that it had a real leader.

One thing that had added to the hopelessness of Mar's rising was that Britain and France were at peace, and thus the Old Pretender could not get any help from the French power. In 1739, however, England went to war with Spain, and as Spain and France were allied, this soon led to a war with France. Thus the Pretender's son, Charles Edward,—the Young Pretender, as the Hanoverians called him, Bonnie Prince Charlie of the Highlands,—was encouraged to try once again to set up the House of Stuart. As it turned out he got no real aid from France; but he expected it, and this hope first led him to seek the Scottish shore.

Prince Charles was young, pleasant in manner, good-looking, and energetic—a very different man from his father. Although the Highland chiefs were not at first willing to rise for him, they could not

resist the prince's prayers. Cameron of Lochiel did not wish to join; he would not listen to any arguments. "Then", said Charles, "let Lochiel, whom my father esteemed the best friend of our family, remain at home and learn from the newspapers the fate of his prince." "Not so," answered Lochiel, "I will go with you, and so shall everyone with whom I have influence." Soon a large body of clansmen assembled, devoted to the young prince, who marched on foot as one of themselves. Sir John Cope started northward, intending to attack them, but finding the Highlanders holding the difficult pass of Corryarrick, went on his way towards Inverness. Charles promptly turned southwards. As he drew near Edinburgh the greatest alarm was felt in the town. There were no troops save two regiments of dragoons, so a body of volunteers was hastily enlisted; but when a march against the Highlanders was proposed the volunteers deserted by the score, flinging away their arms and darting down the wynds to escape. When the West Port was reached only forty-five men were still with the colours. These firmly refused to take one step outside the walls. As for the two dragoon regiments, they bolted without returning a shot, and began a mad flight which ended at North Berwick. The city itself was taken by a handful of fifty Camerons, who rushed in at the Netherbow as a coach was coming out.

Prince Charles Edward, the Young Pretender.

Seizes Edinburgh.

Meanwhile Cope had brought his men back by sea to Dunbar, and was preparing an attack on the capital. Charles marched out to meet him. For the whole of one day the armies lay face to face at Prestonpans, separated by a morass which neither could cross in the face of the enemy. At nightfall, how-

ever, Prince Charles heard of a path by which he could lead his men round Cope's left. Silently in the darkness the Highlanders filed off. In the misty daybreak they burst on Cope's forces, who had scarcely time to form a fresh front to meet them. It was Killiecrankie over again. The Highland claymores could not be resisted. The battle did not last ten minutes. The dragoons at once broke and fled in panic. Of the infantry hardly two hundred escaped. The rest were killed or taken prisoner.

Rout of Prestonpans.

So far Prince Charles had prospered. The next step was more doubtful. He made up his mind to march into England. Here, however, the weakness of a Highland army became clear. Nothing was easier than to lead Highland troops to victory; nothing more difficult than to keep them together for a campaign. In this Montrose had failed, and Dundee's men had dispersed after one check. It was not likely that Charles would be more successful.

March into England.

For a long time luck seemed with him. He entered England, took Carlisle, marched south through Lancashire, and even got so far as Derby. There, little more than a hundred miles from London, his officers forced him to turn back. Their little force of 5000 men was being hemmed in between the Duke of Cumberland and Marshal Wade, each with a larger army. Scarce an English recruit had joined them. "If the devil had come recruiting," said Perth, "they would have preferred him." The Highlanders fell back, beating off an attack of Cumberland's horse at Clifton, near Penrith. Since this, no fight has been fought on English soil.

Retreat from Derby.

Charles's chance, poor though it was, ended when

he turned back at Derby; once again, however, he was to be mocked by fortune. He routed General Hawley's force at Falkirk, but was unable to turn the victory to account. He retired northwards, Cumberland, at the head of the royal forces, leisurely following.

Falkirk.

Culloden Moor, some five miles from Inverness, was to see the Stuarts strike their last blow. In the hope of repeating the surprise of Prestonpans, Lord George Murray was sent to lead a night attack on Cumberland's camp. The troops marched slowly; dawn was approaching when no more than two-thirds of the way had been travelled. Weary and hungry, the Highlanders had to march back to Culloden. By mid-day Cumberland was upon them with double their numbers. The clans on the right and in the centre, galled by a cannonade which they could not return, charged wildly on the royal forces. They received a volley at close quarters, but managed to break the first line. The second line gave them another volley, and turned them. Meanwhile, on the left, the MacDonalds, angered that the place of honour on the right had not been given to them, hung back. The battle was lost. The Highlanders fled. Cumberland's horse pursued the fugitives for miles, cutting down stragglers.

Culloden.

We need not dwell on the romantic story of Prince Charles's escape, nor on the brutal conduct of the royal forces towards the Highlanders, which earned for Cumberland the title of the Butcher. What we have to notice is the effect of the "'Fifteen" and the "'Forty-five". The double failure meant the extinction of the Jacobite cause. Nothing came out so clearly in the march to Derby as the fact that the great mass of the people

Destruction of the Jacobite Cause.

of England did not want the Stuarts back. Many indeed had been ready to drink "to the king over the water"; very few were willing to risk anything by fighting for him. The downfall of the Jacobite cause had also an important effect on British party politics. Throughout the reigns of George I. and George II. the Whigs remained in power, because all Tories were distrusted; they were suspected of being Jacobites, disloyal to the house of Hanover. The next reign, however, saw this altered. George III. took the Tories into favour, and kept them in their turn as his ministers for the greater part of his long reign.

Pacification of the Highlands.

Perhaps an even more important effect of the "'Forty-five" was felt in the Highlands. Hitherto the Highlands had been scarcely a part of Great Britain. Neither Scottish law nor the English tongue was known there. The country was ruled by chiefs who had, like the old feudal nobles, absolute power even of life and death over their followers. No stranger could travel there in safety. The very name of Highlander, the sight of the tartan, the sound of the pipes, were terrible to a Lowlander: they suggested robbery and murder. After the rebellion the Government strove to put an end to the authority of the chiefs over their clans. Their powers of judging their clansmen were taken away. The wearing of the tartan was forbidden. The Highlands came under the same law as the rest of Scotland. Finally, William Pitt hit on the happy idea of using Highland valour against the nation's enemies. He raised Highland regiments from the clans, set their chiefs to command them, and these soon became as valuable to George III. as they had been dangerous to George II. Thus by degrees the Highlands became civilized; robbery and cattle-lifting

ceased; Highlander and Lowlander lived quietly side by side; and Scotland was given a peace and a unity which she had never before enjoyed.

XXX.—THE GROWTH OF THE EMPIRE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

WILLIAM PITT, THE GREAT COMMONER.

The middle of the eighteenth century was filled by three great wars, in which Britain took part. These are the wars of the Austrian Succession (1739–1748), the Seven Years' War (1756–1763), and the American War (1775–1783). On the other side there fought in the first war France, Spain, Prussia, Bavaria; in the second, France, Spain, Austria, Russia, Saxony; in the third, France, Spain, Holland, and our revolted American colonies. This variety of enemies seems to point to Britain's being unusually quarrelsome. What is the cause of this combativeness?

The Wars of the Eighteenth Century.

The answer is given by two facts. In the first place, the kings of Britain were also rulers of Hanover, and this possession entangled us in every war that went on in Germany. But the second is more important. We notice that France and Spain fought against us in all the wars. Here is the true explanation. Britain was really carrying on the long struggle with France which had begun with William III., the object of which was colonial. Spain was also a great colonial power, and became involved since she was the ally of France, having a king of the same Bourbon family. The other powers were drawn in also as allies of France,

A Prolonged Struggle against France.

which was engaged in great schemes of conquest in Europe. Thus Britain, to aid her plans of mastering the French in America and India, joined in against France in the European wars.

Thus, in following the story of the growth of the British empire during this time, we may neglect what happens on the Continent, in order to fix our eyes on what takes place at sea, or in America, or in India. These, and not the battlefields of Germany, are the real scenes of British interests. When in the Seven Years' War an English statesman sent money to our ally, Frederick of Prussia, saying, "I will conquer America in Germany", he meant that he would keep France's hands so full with wars in Europe that she would not have men or ships to be able to resist British troops in the New World or the Indies. This far-seeing man was William Pitt, the elder. Since his was the master-hand that did most at this time to make British policy colonial, and so to build up the British empire, it is well to see something of the man himself before we try to understand his work.

Pitt, the "Great Commoner".

William Pitt first made a name for himself by his attacks on Walpole; but as he also took every chance of speaking against Hanover and the king's fondness for that country, King George II. hated him, and for a long time refused to have him as a minister. Pitt did not care. His first duty was to the people, not to the crown. The king dismissed him from office, but the country was determined to have him back again. They were right. "No one ever", it was said, "entered Pitt's room who did not come out of it a braver man." He was made Secretary of State in 1757, when the Seven Years' War was going against us everywhere. "I know I can save the country,"

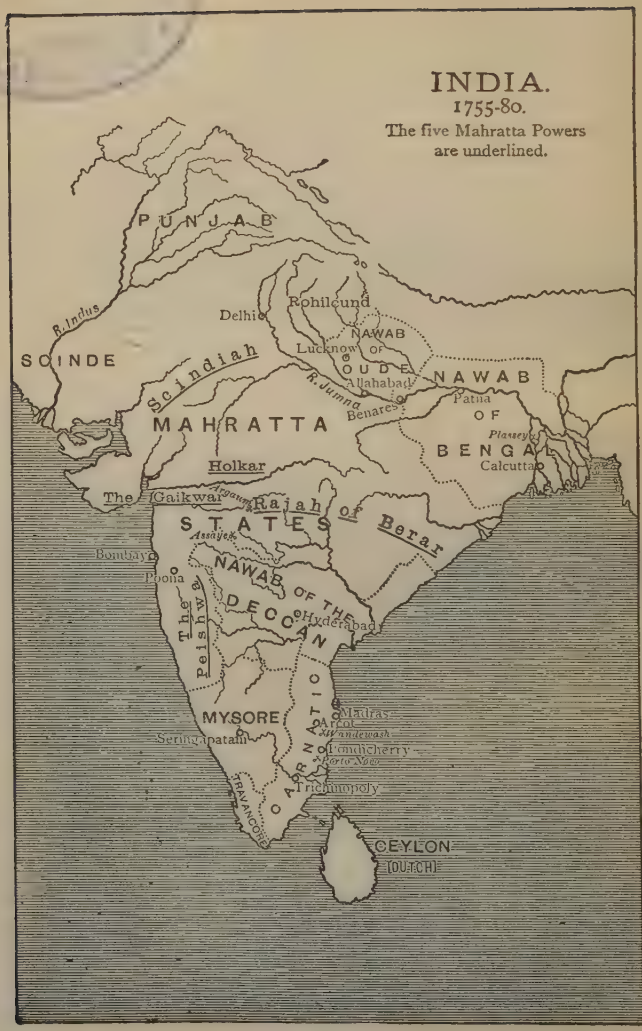
he said proudly, "and no one else can." Pitt had a wonderful power of choosing the best admirals and generals; he saw at once what men were fit for; he never allowed rank or age to influence him; all he looked at was merit. Almost in an instant failure was changed into success. In 1757 Lord Chesterfield wrote: "I am sure that we are undone, both at home and abroad. We are no longer a nation"; but in 1759, so fast did the victories come one after another, that men called it the *Annus Mirabilis*, "the Wonderful Year", and Horace Walpole declared that it was needful to ask each day what the latest victory was, for fear of missing one. Pitt's administration only lasted four years, but no other has ever been so glorious. Everywhere men crowded to see the "Great Commoner", as he was called, and wondered at the stern face and haughty look of the man who had raised Britain to such greatness.

Remembering, then, that it was to Pitt that we mainly owe the determination to get the better of France in the task of making our empire, we may turn to see how the task was carried out. We shall have to see what was done (1) in India, (2) in America, (3) at sea.

I.—THE WINNING OF OUR INDIAN EMPIRE.

Our empire in India, like most of our possessions abroad, was founded by the enterprise of merchants. In Elizabeth's reign a charter had been granted to the East India Company, giving it the sole right to trade to India. It had sent ships, built trading stations called factories, and obtained leave from native rulers to traffic in their dominions; it had had many quarrels with

The East India Company.


INDIA.
1755-80.
The five Mahratta Powers are underlined.
PUNJAB
R. Indus
SCINDE
Delhi
Rohilcund
NAWAB OF OUDE
Lucknow
Allahabad
R. Jumna
Benares
Scindiah
MAHRATTA
Holkar
NAWAB OF BENGAL
Patna
Plassey
Calcutta
The Gaikwar
Rajah of Berar
STATES
Assaye
Bombay
Poona
The Peishwa
NAWAB OF THE DECCAN
Hyderabad
MYSORE
Seringapatam
COROMANDEL COAST
Madras
Pondicherry
Porto Novo
Trichinopoly
MALABAR COAST
TRAVANCORE
CEYLON
[DUTCH]

Dutch traders and French traders, who also were building factories and striving to get all the trade into their own hands; but for the first hundred years of its existence it had no wish to acquire territory. No one dreamed of conquering India as a whole.

About this time, however, a great discovery was made. It was that natives, if trained on European methods and led by European officers, made excellent soldiers. A Frenchman named Dupleix was the first to turn this to good account. He raised a large force of 'Sepoys', as these native soldiers were called, took Madras from the British, and threatened to drive us from Southern India. Besides this, he turned his arms against native princes, deposing those who favoured the British and putting friends of his own in their places.

Dupleix and the Sepoys.

Using Sepoys, however, was a game that two could play at. There was an Englishman in India who soon showed that he could beat Dupleix with his own weapons. This was a clerk in the Company's service named Robert Clive. With a handful of 500 men he marched upon the town of Arcot. The defenders fled at the sight of his troops. He fortified himself there, and was at once besieged by Dupleix with 10,000 men. For fifty days his little force held out against every assault. So devoted were Clive's Sepoys to their British leader that when food ran short they offered to give their share of rice to the Europeans, saying that the water in which it was boiled would be enough for themselves. At last Dupleix retired in despair. This defence of Arcot saved the British power in the south of India.

Clive at Arcot.

New work was soon ready for Clive's hand. The Nabob of Bengal, Surajah Dowlah, had marched on Calcutta, taken prisoner all the Europeans, and thrust

them into the dungeon since called the Black Hole of Calcutta. One hundred and forty-six were put in; but so fearful was the heat in the tiny space, and so terrible the struggle to get water from the guards at the window, that next morning twenty-three only came out alive. Clive's vengeance came swiftly. He marched against Surajah Dowlah, and met him at Plassey. It was another example of how formidable Europeans and Sepoys could be to an untrained Asiatic host. The Nabob's men were 40,000 to Clive's 7000, but they were utterly beaten. The Nabob was dethroned, and a friend of the Company put in his place.

Battle of Plassey, 1757.

Clive did much for India besides winning battles; he prevented the Company's officials trading for themselves and taking bribes; he introduced a purer system of administration, under which the natives of India have by degrees come to recognize that a Briton's word is as good as anyone else's oath. But what is most remarkable about him is that he definitely started the Company on the policy of interfering among native princes in order to acquire territory.

In the ranks of Clive's army at Plassey had been one who was to carry Clive's policy much further. This was Warren Hastings. In 1773 the British Government began to think that our settlement in India, which had led to so much fighting between us and the French, ought to be under the control of Parliament. So they appointed Warren Hastings to be the first governor-general. Hastings extended the authority of the Company in all directions. He waged war on the Mahrattas; he had a long struggle with Hyder Ali, who was threatening to destroy British power in the south, and at last

Warren Hastings.

overcame him. Even in the time of the disastrous American War, when Britain could send him no aid, he held his own stoutly against the French. He was not always scrupulous in the way he obtained money, and for this he was impeached when he came home. But after a trial, in which most of the great orators of the day spoke against him, he was acquitted.

The period of Clive and Hastings, then, saw the real establishment of British power in India. Before them, the Company was a body of traders, afraid of the native princes, bent on pleasing them in order to get liberties of trade, still terrified of their rivals, the French. After them, the power of the French had fallen in the dust, and the Company was now as powerful as any native ruler, with as wide territories, as large a revenue, and a better army. It was obvious that what had been done in Bengal and the Carnatic could be done again all over India. One by one native rulers would fall before the Company, and it by degrees would become master of the whole. This is what actually came to pass.

Great Power of the Company.

II.—THE RISE AND FALL OF OUR FIRST AMERICAN COLONIES.

The story of the beginning of our American colonies is like that of our Indian empire in one respect, namely, that the work was at first almost entirely that of private persons, or trading companies acting under a charter from the crown. In all else it is different. India was thickly peopled, and divided up under powerful native princes; the climate is unsuited to Europeans; European children cannot live there. In America, on the other hand, there were few inhabitants, the Redskins; these

America.

were savages, and although cruel and bloodthirsty they were not difficult to drive out; the climate was temperate and suited to white men. But everything had to be begun from the beginning. Land had to be cleared and cultivated, houses built, roads made, and settlers tempted over from the Old World.

The British colonies in America had been settled at different times with different objects. Virginia was the oldest, Georgia the youngest. The New England States had been peopled by Puritans, the first founders of the colony, "the Pilgrim Fathers", having left England in James I.'s day in order to find a home where they could worship as they pleased. Indeed religious troubles had much to do with the foundations of the colonies. Maryland had given a shelter to Catholics, Pennsylvania was a refuge for the Quakers. All these were under governors appointed by the crown, but as a rule the British Government interfered with them very little.

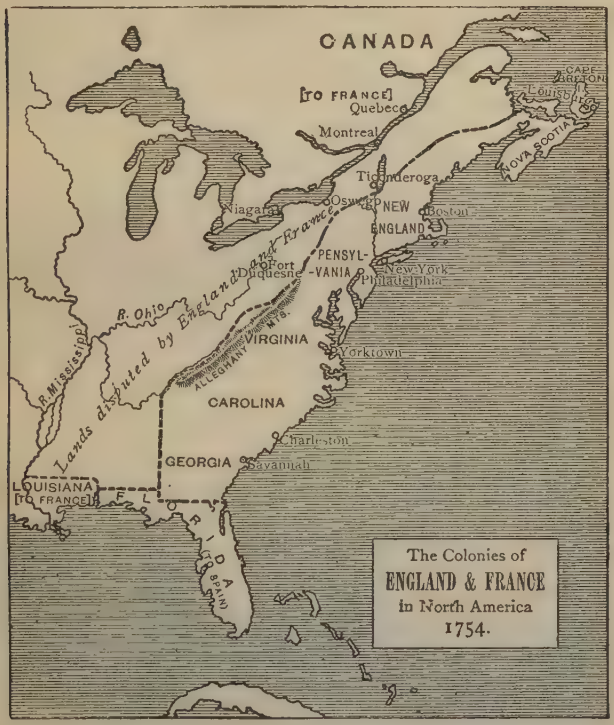
Foundations of the Colonies.

Thus in George II.'s reign the eastern coast of what is now the United States was occupied by a set of British possessions. Westwards they were limited by the Alleghany Mountains; in the north the French held Canada. Far away in the south was another French post at the mouth of Mississippi. A grave question now arose: to which power was the interior of the continent to fall? The French began to build forts on the head-waters of the river Ohio, intending to shut in the British and claim the west for themselves. A British expedition was sent to take these forts, but, falling into an ambush, was routed near Fort Duquesne by the French and their Indian allies. This was in 1755.

Rivalry of Britain and France in America.

One very striking thing about this battle, as well

as the defence of Arcot (1751), is that it took place at a time when Britain and France were at peace with each other. Nothing shows more clearly the unceasing rivalry in colonial matters that was going on



between the two nations. Peace only existed in Europe. In India and America the struggle went on steadily.

Pitt saw that a blow must be struck. He chose James Wolfe to strike it. Although Wolfe was but thirty-three, he had been nineteen years in the army,

and had won the rank of lieutenant-colonel. In 1758 he aided General Amherst to take Louisburg from the French, strongly fortified as it was. The next year he sailed up the St. Lawrence to attack Quebec. The town lies between the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles. Precipices rise from the river banks to the Heights of Abraham behind it. A French general, Montcalm, was there to defend it with a large force. Men said Wolfe was mad to attack it. "I wish he would bite some of the other generals, then," said old George II., who understood Wolfe's courage. For three months Wolfe could do nothing. At last, embarking his men in boats, he brought them under cover of night to where the precipices of the Heights of Abraham frown over the river. He had heard of a narrow dangerous path. Silently the men climbed it in the darkness. When day broke, Wolfe's army was drawn up for battle on the open ground at the top. Montcalm led out the French to drive Wolfe back into the river, but his men could not resist the charge of the British. In the moment of victory Wolfe himself was struck by three balls. He lived long enough to hear that the French were beaten. "God be praised!" he cried; "I shall die happy." Quebec surrendered. All Canada was taken from the French, and by the treaty of Paris in 1763 passed into British hands.

Wolfe takes Quebec, 1759.

British power was now supreme in America; the next war, however, was to see most of it disappear. So long as the French held Canada our American colonists feared them too much to wish to cast off British rule, for to rebel against Britain would have meant falling into the hands of France. This check being removed, the colonists

Colonial Discontent.

grew dissatisfied. They complained that Britain hampered their trade. This was true, for British commercial policy at this time thought it right to destroy any trade in the colonies which might rival a home industry. Thus the colonists were not allowed to manufacture iron goods—nails, knives, and such like—for fear they might injure British ironworkers; they might not make beaver hats, but had to send the beaver to England to be made up, and then had to buy British-made hats. Even colonial produce, such as sugar and tobacco, had to be sent straight to Britain, in order that the merchants at home might be able to buy cheap. These rules were part of what was called the Mercantile System, by which everything was to be sacrificed to keep British merchants and manufactures prosperous.

The colonists thus felt that Britain gave them little, and took a great deal. So when a tax called the Stamp Act was laid on the colonies, men grew very angry. No one would use British goods: ships which brought British tea were boarded, and the tea-chests emptied into Boston harbour; and soon after a party of British troops was fired on.

Proposals to tax the Colonies, 1765 and 1767.

The war of American Independence lasted seven years. The British generals were bad; the troops that were sent from home were mostly Hessians hired from Germany; the country was so vast that as soon as rebellion seemed crushed in one place, it burst out afresh in another. At first the British won most of the battles, though they had to fight hard for them; but the colonists were determined not to give in, and they had a general, George Washington, who, even when his men were short of

War of American Independence, 1775-1783.

Washington.

arms and powder, shoeless and half starving, yet managed always to make head against the British. Help came to him against Britain from an old British foe. France saw a chance to revenge herself for the loss of Canada; she took the side of the colonists. Cornwallis, the British general, had entrenched himself at Yorktown, trusting to get supplies by sea; but a French fleet appeared, drove off the English ships and blockaded Cornwallis. Washington closed in round him on land. Cornwallis had at last to yield. This was a death-blow to British power. Soon after we were compelled to acknowledge the United States to be independent.

Yorktown, 1781.

So went our first great colony. After the first bitterness of defeat was over, men took it surprisingly calmly. They thought it was natural; "colonies", it was said, "were like pears; they would fall when they were ripe". But we shall find that this view has proved false. Our American colonies were lost because they were governed on a bad principle; but we have learned by experience to manage colonies on a better plan, and now our colonies are more firmly joined to their mother country than they have ever been.

III.—BRITISH POWER AT SEA.

If now we turn to what was done at sea during these three wars, we find a mixture of success and failure. Many brilliant things were done. In 1740 Anson started with a squadron to attack the Spanish possessions in the Pacific. He imitated Drake's great exploits, attacking and plundering towns, seizing Spanish treasure-ships, and returned home after four years' absence, bringing with him a million and a quarter in treasure. In 1759 Hawke

Anson.

won perhaps the most daring battle ever fought by a British commander. The French fleet had drawn in for shelter into Quiberon Bay, on the western coast of France. The bay is full of rocks and shoals; a wild November gale was blowing; to add to other difficulties night had fallen. Hawke dashed in among the Frenchmen, and made short work of them. Most were taken, burnt, or driven on shore. Hawke only lost forty men. Our fleet gave another proof of its importance on the outbreak of war with Spain in 1762. Manilla and Havana were immediately taken from the Spaniards, and the Plate fleet captured, one ship carrying treasure worth £800,000.

Quiberon Bay, 1759.

On the other hand, there are some failures to set against these exploits. There were many indecisive actions; one in 1744 led to a number of accusations between the officers in command, and a court-martial, in which the admiral was dismissed from the service. A worse thing yet was to come. At the beginning of the Seven Years' War, Admiral Byng, being sent to relieve Minorca, met a French fleet stronger than his own. He fought it in a very half-hearted way, and retreated. Minorca was lost, and Byng was brought to trial for misconduct, and shot. Voltaire said, "In England they have shot one of their admirals in order to encourage the others". In the war of American Independence we have already seen how de Grasse's fleet cut off Cornwallis, and caused his surrender at Yorktown.

Byng, 1757.

For the greater part of that war, indeed, the British navy was not at its best. It did not appear to be able to strike a hard blow; it could wound, but not kill. The French took many of our West Indian islands; for three years Gibraltar was besieged, and though

Governor Eliott's defence of it never wavered, though he drove off every attack by showering red-hot shot on the enemy's ships and setting them on fire, yet the mere fact that French and Spanish fleets should be able to engage in such a siege almost uninterrupted, seems discreditable to the British navy. Clearly it had not the command of the sea which we expect it to have nowadays.

Defence of Gibraltar, 1779–1782.

One fact may well serve as a lesson—that the war in which our sea-power wavers is the only war that turns out disastrous. France had much improved her navy, while ours had been allowed to stand still; the result was that, fighting with fleets superior in numbers, in tonnage, and in guns, our admirals often failed to do anything decisive.

At last, however, when Britain was in the depths of despair, when America was gone, and when most of our West Indian colonies had been taken, a man was found to finish the war with a victory. Rodney met the French fleet off Dominica, and shattered it; the French admiral, de Grasse, was captured on his own flagship, which was reckoned to be the finest ship afloat.

Rodney's Victory of 12th April, 1782.

This battle enabled us to make a much better peace than we should otherwise have done, but it has another and a much greater importance. The naval battles of the day had been indecisive, because the idea had been to lay the British ships alongside the French *in line*. What usually happened was this. As the British fleet filed by the French, each vessel received the fire of every French vessel in turn, and generally got its rigging cut up. When at last the two fleets were in position, van to van, centre to centre, rear to rear, and the British

Breaking the Line.

ARCTIC OCEAN
GREENLAND
ICELAND
NORTH AMERICA
UNITED STATES
NEWFOUNDLAND
Bermudas
Balama Is.
WEST INDIA ISLANDS
Barbados
Jamaica
GUIANA
CENTRAL AMERICA
SOUTH AMERICA
BRAZIL
BOLIVIA
Rio Janeiro
Buenos Ayres
PATAGONIA
Falkland Is.
Chatham I
POLYNESIA
OCEANIA
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
ANTARCTIC OCEAN
EUROPE
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
Siberia
St. Petersburg
Moscow
BRITISH ISLES
London
Paris
Gibraltar
Venice
Constantinople
ASIATIC TURKESTAN
CHINESE EMPIRE
Pekin
JAPAN ISLANDS
PERSIA
ARABIA
Aden
Arabian Sea
Socotra
Bay of Bengal
CEYLON
Maldive Is.
Seychelles
Mauritius
Bourbon
MADAGASCAR
Bathurst
Sierra Leone
Ashanti
Ascension
St. Helena
Walfish B.
C. of Good Hope
CAPE COLONY
Amsterdam I.
Kerguelen I.
CHINA
Hong Kong
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
Borneo
Celebes
Java
New Guinea
Solomon Is.
Fiji Is.
AUSTRALIA
Brisbane
Sydney
Melbourne
NEW ZEALAND
TASMANIA
Emerald I.
THE WORLD
on Mercator's Projection.
British Possessions shown thus
Gibraltar

admiral was hoping for a good battle of hard pounding, the French fleet would draw off. The British ships, with rigging cut about, could not pursue. Thus battles were indecisive. The British would boast that the French had run; the French, that the British were too much crippled to follow.

Rodney, however, adopted a different plan. He broke through the French line, and laid all his ships on both sides of the rear of the French fleet, thus getting it between two fires, while the French van had no enemy to attack. Thus his battle was decisive, for a number of French ships were overpowered before their comrades could come to their assistance. It gave our admirals what they had long desired—a chance of making the slippery Frenchman stay and fight it out to the end—and in a real battle the British fleets always triumphed. This plan of attacking in column and breaking the enemy's line was to lead to great results in the next war. It was employed by Nelson at Trafalgar.

One other naval exploit remains to be noticed, the more striking since at the time people thought little or nothing of it. The same year which saw the beginning of Lord North's government that was destined to lose us our American colonies, saw Captain Cook take possession of Australia and New Zealand in the name of King George. No one then understood the value of Cook's discovery; no one imagined that on the shores of the great southern island there would arise cities rivalling those of America; no one dreamed of the gold of Victoria and West Australia, or the sheep-runs of New South Wales; no one realized that a fresh continent had been secured for the British race. These things were hidden in the future. Yet thus, while

Australia, 1770.

one dominion was being lost, another was silently and almost imperceptibly added to replace it.

XXXI.—THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND NAPOLEON.

Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars, 1793–1815.

With two short intervals Britain was continuously at war with France from 1793 to 1815, and this war ended the prolonged struggle that had begun under William III. and Marlborough, and had gone on with little cessation all through the eighteenth century. It was by far the greatest of Britain's wars. Alike by sea and land Britain made war on a larger scale than she had ever done before, with more ships and more men. It cost far more than any previous war; for not only had Britain to pay for her own vast fleet and the armies that drove the French out of Spain and finally conquered Napoleon at Waterloo, but she also gave enormous sums to her allies who were struggling against Napoleon on the Continent. Thus, in the twenty-two years of the war the National Debt increased to almost four times its previous amount, and at the end stood at the gigantic figure of nine hundred million pounds. But if much was spent in lives and money, much was gained. Although Napoleon and his victorious armies successively entered every capital on the Continent except Constantinople, Britain alone defied him. And when the end of the war came it found Britain strained by the great efforts she had made, but not exhausted; unconquered and unconquerable; firmly established as the mistress of the sea and the one great colonial power.

National Debt.

In the course of the war five periods deserve special notice. These are (1) the events of the years 1797 and 1798; (2) the battle of Trafalgar in 1805; (3) the British invasion of Spain; (4) Napoleon's expedition to Russia in 1812; (5) the battle of Waterloo in 1815. Of these the first two are naval events; the last three military.

Causes of the War.

1. Britain began the war with France partly from commercial reasons, partly because her ally, Holland, was attacked, and partly out of disgust at the violence of the Jacobin or extreme French revolutionary party. This feeling was soon deepened when the Jacobins caused their king, Louis XVI., and his wife, Marie Antoinette, to be put to death by the guillotine—actions which were little else than murders. But the French, though attacked on all sides, showed extraordinary vigour in driving out their enemies. They won battle after battle; they compelled Prussia and Austria to beg for peace; they had even made Spain and Holland join with them and give them the assistance of their fleets; and in 1797 Britain alone was left still fighting.

Mutiny of the Navy.

The year was a very black one, for in the spring of it our navy, on which we relied, mutinied. First at Spithead and then the Nore, the fleets lay idle, the sailors declaring they would fight no more till their grievances were redressed. It is true that two months earlier Admiral Jervis, with fourteen ships of the line, had shattered a combined French and Spanish fleet of twenty-seven vessels. But France had another maritime ally, Holland. The Dutch fleet had been held blockaded by Admiral Duncan. But when our fleets mutinied it did not seem that this blockade could be maintained. The Dutch might break out, join the

St. Vincent, 1797.

French, seize the Channel, and a French army might be landed in England. Duncan managed to deceive the Dutch. He kept a frigate or two cruising in sight of land, making signals as if to a blockading fleet outside. The Dutch did not know that the blockading fleet was not there—that it really was lying mutinous and idle. But time was gained. The sailors' demands for better pay, better food, and better treatment were granted. The fleet again put to sea before the slow Dutch made a move. When they came out Duncan defeated them at Camperdown.

Camperdown, 1797.

Jervis's second in command at St. Vincent was the son of a Norfolk clergyman, Horatio Nelson. He was to show that he could do greater things yet for Britain. His chance soon came. In 1798 Napoleon Bonaparte was sent with a French expedition to Egypt. The French fleet got safely to Egypt, but Nelson found it lying in Aboukir Bay, in a place where the French admiral judged it would be impossible to attack him with any chance of success, since he had placed his ships so near to a shoal that it seemed impossible for the British ships to get between him and the land. To Nelson, at the head of a fleet, nothing was impossible. By a magnificent piece of seamanship some of the British ships rounded the extremity of the French line, while the rest anchored on the other side, placing the French between two fires. In the evening the fight began. It raged all night. In the middle of the darkness the French flagship *L'Orient* burst into flames, and eventually blew up with all hands. When morning came all the French fleet save four had been taken or sunk. The French power in the Mediterranean was broken.

Nelson.

Battle of the Nile, 1798.

2. Trafalgar relieved us from a danger nearer home. When, after a year of uneasy peace, war broke out again in 1803, Napoleon gathered an army of 130,000 men at Boulogne, ready to invade England. Hosts of flat-bottomed boats were prepared to carry them across, and the troops were so constantly drilled at embarking that the task was only an affair of minutes. "Let us", said Napoleon, "but be masters of the Straits for six hours, and we shall be masters of the world." But those six hours' mastery he was never to gain.

Napoleon's Plan for Invasion.

France was not without ships; indeed, could she only mass her own with those of her ally, Spain, she would have had a formidable fleet; but the ships lay blockaded in many separate harbours—Toulon, Rochefort, Brest, Ferrol, Cadiz. Napoleon formed an ingenious plan. His admiral, Villeneuve, was to dash out of Toulon the first time a storm drove off the British blockading fleet, and sail for the West Indies. Nelson would be sure to follow. Villeneuve, however, was not to fight him; he was to give him the slip, hasten back across the Atlantic, set free the imprisoned French ships at Brest, and thus, with a united fleet, hurry to Boulogne and give Napoleon the command of the Channel. The first part of the plan succeeded. Villeneuve avoided Nelson, and, leaving him in the West Indies, returned to Europe. But on his way he had to fight a British fleet under Calder, and though he was not seriously defeated, he turned aside and put into Cadiz, where he was at once blockaded. Napoleon's chance of invading England was gone.

Nelson took care that he never had another. On the 21st of October, 1805, he met the allied French and Spanish fleet off Cape Trafalgar. As the British

fleet drifted slowly down in two columns against the allied line, Nelson made that famous signal that will always be remembered by all English-speaking races: "England expects that every man will do his duty"—and nobly every man did it. The enemy's fleet was destroyed, but the victory was won at the cost of Nelson's life. He was struck on the quarter-deck of his flagship, the *Victory*, by a musket-ball from the French ship, the *Redoutable*, and died soon after. But his work was done. Never again during the war was the British command of the sea in danger; never again were we threatened with the horrors of a foreign invasion.

Trafalgar, 1805.

3. While our sailors had been winning so much renown, our soldiers had done very little. They did not lack bravery, but they were badly led, or else sent to places where they could do no good. Their turn came when Wellington (Sir Arthur Wellesley, as he then was) went to command the British army in Portugal. He defeated one French marshal after another. He constructed the lines of Torres Vedras, a fortified camp from which French armies far larger than his could not expel him. Step by step he drove the French through Spain towards their own frontier. He showed that British soldiers, when well led, were better than any soldiers in the world, and that even the French, so long victorious, could not resist the men who advanced to storm the steep and shot-swept breaches in the great fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo with *unloaded* muskets. Picton's order had been, "No powder. We'll do this thing with cold iron." It was done.

Wellington.

Peninsular War, 1808–1813.

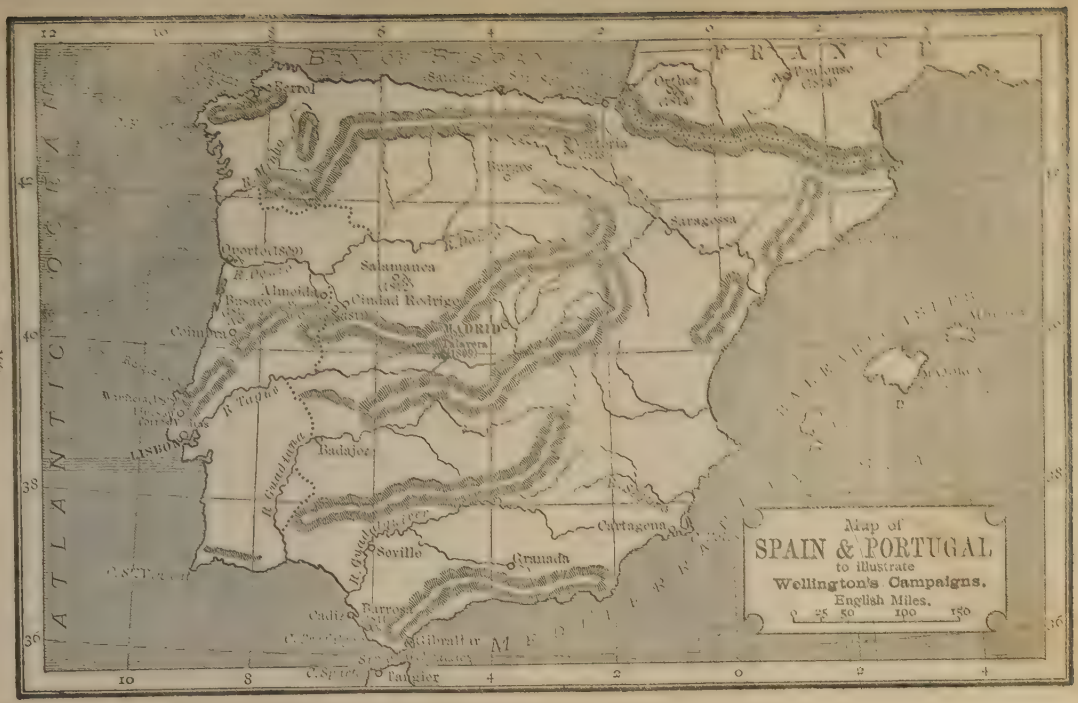
In the course of five campaigns Wellington cleared Spain, and in the spring of 1814 Britain was in turn invading France.

4. The war in Spain, which Napoleon called "the Spanish ulcer", to such an extent did it eat away his power, was not the only disaster he had met. In 1812 he had led half a million of soldiers—his Grand Army—into Russia. The Russians retired before him, and he reached Moscow. There, to his surprise, the Russians did not ask for peace. He was forced to retreat over the same country which his army had laid waste in his advance. His men could find neither food nor shelter. The Russians followed on his traces, and gave his men no rest. The Cossack horsemen cut off the stragglers. Then came on the winter, with snow and bitter frosts, more deadly than Russian cannon, sharper and more pitiless than Cossack lances. The wretched French froze to death round their very camp-fires. Not one in ten of the army escaped. Napoleon's veterans were gone; and after another year's fighting in Germany he was driven by combined Russian, Austrian, and Prussian forces to retreat into France, and at last had to give up his throne.

Napoleon's Russian Campaign.

5. He was sent to Elba, a small island in the Mediterranean, but early in 1815 he escaped to France. The army joined him again, and it was felt that such an enemy to the peace of Europe must be crushed, and this time for ever. England was nearest at hand, and Wellington was the man to do it. He was sent with an army into Belgium. Wellington had the aid of a Prussian army under Blücher. Napoleon's plan was to thrust his force between the British and the Prussians, and defeat each in turn. He began well by beating Blücher at Ligny, and advanced to attack Wellington. The two great generals had never met before. On the 18th of June, 1815, the armies were face to face at

The "Hundred Days". Waterloo.


Map of
SPAIN & PORTUGAL
to illustrate
Wellington's Campaigns.
English Miles.
0 25 50 100 150
FRANCE
BAY OF BISCAY
ATLANTIC OCEAN
MEDITERRANEAN
BALEARIC ISLES
Majorca
Minorca
Pamplona
Orthez
Vittoria
Burgos
Saragossa
Salamanca
Almeida
Ciudad Rodrigo
Busaco
MADRID
Talavera
Coimbra
Oporto
Braga
Viana
LISBON
Badajoz
Cartagena
Seville
Granada
Cadiz
Barrosa
Gibraltar
Tangier
R. Minho
R. Douro
R. Tagus
R. Guadiana
R. Guadalquivir
C. St. Vincent
C. Trafalgar
C. Spartel
C. de Gata
C. de Palos
C. Tortosa
C. Creus
Strait of Gibraltar
M E D
12
10
8
6
4
2
0
2
4
42
40
38
36

Waterloo, the French superior in numbers, while Wellington had many Belgian troops, on whom he could not rely. But he had promised Blücher to stand fast at Waterloo, while Blücher had sworn to come there to help him, and both generals were men of their word. All day the British troops stood steady under the rush of cavalry and the storm of French shot and shell—"the thin red line" that could not be broken. Charge after charge was beaten off, and still the French swarmed to the attack. In the afternoon the thunder of the Prussian guns was heard coming up on the left. Wellington gave the word to his own troops to advance in their turn, and the French were overthrown. Napoleon was conquered at last.

It has been said that "at Waterloo Britain fought for victory; at Trafalgar for existence". The fruits of these battles are what we now enjoy: a land secure from invasion; a supremacy at sea; great wealth drawn from a world-wide commerce; and a colonial empire which no other power can rival.

XXXII.—THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.

Britain's Wealth.

Perhaps the greatest feature in British history during the eighteenth century is one which is often passed over very lightly. We think a great deal of Wolfe's conquest of Quebec, and of Clive's deeds in India. These, indeed, meant the expansion of our empire abroad. But we must not lose sight of the sources of our power at home. The most astonishing mark of our history in the eighteenth century is the way in which Britain

was able to pour out money. She did indeed saddle herself with a heavy load of debt—a load which would have crippled any other nation. Yet at the end of the century, when Napoleon had to be fought, the country was able to find still more money, not merely enough to pay our own large navy and army, but enough to keep Austrians, Prussians, and Russians in the field against him as well.

The secret of this is that during the eighteenth century Britain became the workshop of the world. We grew rich by our trade and industry. Napoleon was right when he saw that if he could cripple our trade he might conquer us. But our trade was too vast to be crushed by even Napoleon's resources.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century Britain was still chiefly an agricultural country. Her iron trade languished because men had not learned to use coal to work it, and the supply of charcoal from the forests was running short. The linen business was small, chiefly centred in Scotland and the north of Ireland. No true cottons were made, because British spinners could not spin a cotton yarn strong enough for use as warp. The woollen trade was old and fairly vigorous, though it was somewhat held back by the fact that it took several spinners to make enough yarn to keep one weaver at work. But the mechanism used in the trade had made little progress. The hand-wheel and the hand-loom had been in use for a long time without any improvement.

Curiously enough, the first in the long string of discoveries came, not in the lagging branch of spinning, but in weaving. This was Kay's invention of the flying shuttle, by which the weaver was spared the need of passing the shuttle from one hand to another through the

The Inventions; the Flying Shuttle, 1733.

warp. By the new plan he could work twice as fast and weave cloth of double width. Hitherto one man could only weave cloth as wide as the space occupied by his outstretched arms.

This put the spinners even further behind. Soon, however, they made up the lost ground. Hargreaves invented the spinning-jenny, Arkwright the water-frame, and Crompton combined the principle of these two machines in the "mule". There soon was an abundance of yarn, and Arkwright's cotton-yarn was strong enough for use as warp. This began our gigantic cotton industry. Cheshire and Lancashire were soon busy with cotton-mills. In a short time cotton employed more people than its old rival, wool.

Spinning, 1764–1772.

Machines had been made to spin: could they be made to weave? This question was soon answered by a clergyman named Cartwright, who made the first power-loom. It was very clumsy, but he and others soon made improvements. By the beginning of this century the power-loom was fast driving the hand-loom out of the field.

The Power-loom.

Invention followed invention; it is impossible to notice them all. We may remark two more: the first, the process of bleaching by chlorine perfected by a Scot, Tennant, which reduced the time required for bleaching from many weeks to a few days; the second, that of colour-printing by a revolving cylinder instead of a small hand block, which enabled one man to do the work of twenty. Inventions of this nature made it easy to turn out goods much faster and cheaper than before.

Bleaching and Colour-printing.

Victory of Machinery over Hand Work.

Further, though most of these inventions were first made in cotton, they could be modified

for use with wool and linen. Thus at the beginning of this century all the textile trades had been invaded by machinery. The hand-workers were beaten both in quality and in speed.

It was not only in weaving and spinning that inventions came. Just at the same time iron-masters learnt to use coal instead of charcoal for smelting. This sent our iron industry up with a leap. Later, an iron-master named Cort invented the puddling process, by which malleable iron could be made with coal. He also was the first to use rollers instead of the hammer for shaping his iron and squeezing out impurities. These discoveries made us the great iron-working country of the world. If we look at other industries we find the same progress. Those were the days of Wedgwood, the great potter, who did so much for the Staffordshire potteries; they were the days also of Brindley, who by his canals made it easy to send goods about Britain cheaply and quickly, instead of by the old expensive and slow method of road-wagons and pack-horses.

Iron.

The latter half of the eighteenth century is the era of machinery. Machinery, however, called for power. Water-power was good where it could be had; but in our coal-fields lay vast stores of power, unused till the genius of a Scottish mechanic, James Watt, improved the steam-engine into being the ready servant of all manufacture. Industries which had settled on the banks of streams began to draw in to where coal was ready to hand. Factory villages speedily became factory towns, where a crowded population gathered round forests of tall chimneys. Thus grew Glasgow, Dundee, Liverpool, Manchester, Preston, Leeds, Bradford, and a host of others, soon leaving behind the old county towns.

Watt and the Steam-engine, 1763.

This meant wealth for the manufacturers, and power for Britain, but it did not mean happiness for the workers. In the old days woollen weaving and spinning had been "by-industries" spread all over the country. Many cottages had a loom where the labourer worked when the long winter nights forbade him to work in the fields. There was scarcely a home without the spinning-wheel, at which the women of the house earned a steady sum each week. The new machinery silenced loom and wheel alike, and those who had eked out their earnings from the land by the aid of spinning and weaving were reduced to great poverty and misery. Many went into the new factory towns.

Decay of By-industries.

Here, though they got work, they got it under bad conditions. In the old days they could work when they pleased and leave off when they pleased. But in the factory all worked alike. No hours are too long for the giant Steam, and many masters overworked their people to keep up with their machinery. This was very hard on the numerous children employed. They often began at five in the morning, and worked till seven, eight, or even nine at night. There were no regular hours for meals; food was eaten in the mill, often covered with dust. The rooms were low and ill ventilated. Children were sometimes cruelly punished by the overseers—nay, even by their own parents—if they failed to fulfil their tasks. Machinery was unfenced, and accidents were hideously common when the children toiled so early and so late that they dropped to sleep over their work.

The Factory System.

Britain's wealth was being bought too dear, if this was to continue. Women who were all day in the mill could not be good mothers. Children who had

no time for play or for education were growing up ignorant, weakly, deformed, with no taste for anything healthy. They had indeed been "through the mill", with terrible consequences. So an agitation was started to shorten the hours for women and children.

The remedy was long in coming. Devoted men, Oastler, Fielden, Lord Shaftesbury, laboured away to persuade Parliament, but it was slow work. Even Liberal statesmen, such as Bright and Gladstone, fought against the Factory Acts. By degrees right conquered. Act after act was passed shortening hours, granting a Saturday half-holiday, now in one trade, now in another. It was not, however, till 1847 that the working day was fixed as it now stands.

The Factory Acts.

The Factory Acts, chiefly passed by the Tories, are a striking example of good legislation. They have not injured our industries; they have saved our artisan class. The best proof of how necessary they are is that they have since been extended to embrace almost every trade.

If we sum up the results of the industrial revolution, they are these:—It made Britain rich, and therefore powerful; it made most of our large towns; it created the artisan class, which, though at first very hardly treated by the new conditions of labour, has now, under State protection, become the most numerous and energetic portion of the community. In addition to this, the industrial revolution curiously shifted the balance of population and wealth in England. Before it came, the South was rich, cultured, populous; the North backward and ignorant. Now the North is vigorous and active; the South has remained agricultural, and inclines to be stagnant. Sussex and

Norfolk, once the homes of the iron trade and a busy woollen trade, are to-day sparsely peopled. Their industries have left them to go in search of northern coal. Lancashire, once almost the poorest county in England, has become the richest.

XXXIII.—CROWN AND PARLIAMENT.

THE REFORM BILL.

We have seen that the "Glorious Revolution" of 1689, which turned James II. from the throne, settled for ever the question between King and Parliament which should be master. Henceforward no king could hope to resist Parliament. Yet all the same another hundred and fifty years were to pass before it could be said with truth that Parliament alone ruled. For the kings, having failed in one plan, turned to another. Instead of ruling in defiance of Parliament, they began to rule Parliament itself; they obtained so much influence over ministers, members, and electors, that during the eighteenth century Parliament generally did what the king wanted.

Influence of the Crown over Parliament.

We can perceive this more plainly by an example or two. Even as early as Anne's reign it becomes clear. Anne was at first in the hands of the Duchess of Marlborough. The duchess and her husband wanted the war to go on, and so did the Whig party. Therefore the duchess persuaded Anne to favour Whig ministers. At length Anne grew tired of the duchess and took a new favourite, Mrs. Masham. Mrs. Masham was a Tory, and so Anne turned gradually towards the Tories, who wanted to bring the war

to an end. At last Tory ministers came in, and Marlborough was dismissed. It is true that the country approved of what the queen did, but had the queen not wished for a change, she could have kept Marlborough in power.

Again, George I. favoured the Whigs, and his son George II. did the same, because both feared that the Tories were hankering to have the Stuarts back. Accordingly the Whigs came into power with George I., and stayed in for about fifty years. One ministry followed another—Stanhope, Walpole, Carteret, Pelham, Newcastle, Pitt—but all were Whig. It is true that the kings were not responsible for this Whig monopoly of office. Neither George I. nor George II. took much interest in party questions. The great Whig families in England were at that time able by bribery and influence to keep Parliament full of Whigs. Being in office, the Whigs could, and did, use their power and patronage to keep themselves in office by favouring their supporters and making friends of those who were wavering. Yet we shall see that the king's power was strong enough to break down the power of the Whig families when it was used against them.

The Whig Houses.

George III. had been brought up to dislike the Whigs. His mother was never tired of saying to him in his boyhood, "George, be a king". He had learnt to think of the Whigs as the great foes of the royal power, so he favoured the Tories from the first. At first he found Parliament in the hands of the Whig houses. He tried a Tory minister, but the Commons and the Lords both contained a majority of Whigs. By degrees, however, the Tories, with the king's support, grew stronger: first he was able to put in power those Whigs whom

George III., 1760–1820.

he least disliked; finally, in 1783 he overthrew the great Whig coalition which was headed by Fox, and made a young man of twenty-four, William Pitt, son of the Great Commoner, prime minister. Henceforward for fifty years there were practically nothing but Tory ministries. Pitt himself was prime minister for nineteen years (1783–1801 and 1804–1806), Lord Liverpool for fifteen years (1812–1827). In fact power, which in the early part of the eighteenth century had seemed to belong entirely to the Whigs, appears in the latter part to be the absolute property of the Tories.

Ascendency of the Tories.

The fact was that the king had found out means to get a party of men in the Commons who would support whomsoever he wished. There were many ways of using this royal influence. Pensions and honours were freely given to members and their friends; promotion in the army and navy went much by royal favour; a friendly word from the king would secure the votes of those who liked to be thought intimate at court. Thus the name of the "King's Friends" was openly bestowed on a large party in the Commons. In the Lords things were even more simple, for the king could make whom he pleased a lord. Thus the House of Lords, Whig under the first two Georges, became strongly Tory under the third George. On one occasion, in order to defeat Fox's India Bill, the king made Lord Temple show to each peer a card on which he had written the message that "whoever voted for the India Bill was not only not his friend, but would be considered by him as an enemy", and as a result the bill was thrown out.

Royal Influence.

1783.

The growth of this royal power by which Parliament was moulded to the king's wishes was plainly

seen, and the Whig party did its best to check it. Bills were passed to diminish the king's patronage; and the Commons voted, "that the power of the Crown has increased, and ought to be diminished". This was an excellent piece of advice, but it was not clear how it could be carried out.

By degrees men came to see that the reason why Parliament had thus fallen into the hands of the king was that the House of Commons did not really represent the nation. Birmingham, Leeds, Manchester, and many of the big towns had no members, while little boroughs, where there was only a handful of voters, returned two. Gatton with seven electors sent up two members. Ludgershall had one elector: he proposed himself, voted for himself, and sat in Parliament as a representative of himself. Old Sarum was no longer even a village; there were absolutely no inhabitants, yet members sat for it. Even in the large towns and counties that had members, it was often the case that very few persons had the right to vote as electors. There were only thirty-three voters in Edinburgh, and the same number in Glasgow; only one hundred and fifteen in Argyllshire. "Pocket-boroughs", as they were called, enabled a rich patron to return many members at his wish. One duke returned eleven members, another nine, and of course in these small places everyone expected to be bribed before he would vote. When Sheridan was returned for Stafford an item in his election expenses ran thus, "Paid 250 burgesses £3 each".

Parliament did not Represent the Nation.

This plainly called for reform. We may wonder that reform did not come sooner, but during the long war against Napoleon men were too much interested in that to care about altering things

Reform.

at home. And what had been done in France made the Tory party nervous. They spoke of the reformers in Britain as if they were persons who wanted to make a revolution, to destroy the throne and turn Britain into a republic. Thus the wild things that had been done in the name of liberty in France, the execution of the king and queen, the murders of nobles, and the confiscation of property, had the result of putting off reform in Britain for nearly forty years.

When King George III. died, however, the question could not be put off any longer. The Whigs at last got a majority in the Commons. Lord Grey became Prime Minister, and Lord John Russell brought in the Reform Bill to take away the right of returning members from the pocket-boroughs, and give the seats to the counties and large towns. Then began a desperate struggle; the bill was thrown out on the third reading, and Parliament dissolved. The country, however, was bent on reform, and the Whigs came back again with a huge majority—over a hundred. The Reform Bill passed the Commons in spite of all the Tories could do to delay it.

George IV., 1820–1830.

Reform Bill, 1831.

The fate of the bill now hung on the Lords, and the Lords rejected it. This nearly caused a rebellion. There were riots in many towns. The Dukes of Nottingham and Rutland had made themselves prominent by their opposition to the bill; Nottingham Castle was burnt to the ground and Belvoir Castle attacked by a furious mob. At Bristol the recorder was pelted in the streets, hustled into the Mansion-house, and at length forced to flee over the roofs to escape from his pursuers. Men collected arms, and spoke of marching on London; and in the capital itself shops were closed, church bells tolled

in mourning, and a run was made on the Bank of England. When the king appeared in public he was hooted. At length he agreed to make enough Whig peers to get a majority in the Lords. The mere threat, however, was enough; the Lords gave way, and the bill became law. 1832.

Besides taking members from the rotten boroughs and giving them to the large towns and counties, the Reform Bill set up a uniform franchise. Hitherto almost every borough had had its own rules about who was to vote; now all were made alike—in the towns, occupiers of premises of £10 yearly value, and in the country, holders and occupiers of property of the same value, if they held a lease of sixty years: those who paid £50 annually in rent also got votes. Thus the lower classes got no votes: they were only given to shopkeepers, the richer artisans, farmers, and yeomen. Since this time the franchise has twice been lowered, once in 1867, when household suffrage was given in the towns, and again in 1884, when this was extended to the counties. The result of this has been to give votes to artisans and farm-labourers, so that Britain has become in reality democratic, that is to say, a country where the people have the main power.

Of these three Reform Bills the first was by far the most important, since it put an end once for all to the influence of the crown and of the House of Lords over the House of Commons. It was no longer possible to bribe the large new constituencies, or to influence the members they chose. Ever since the late Queen Victoria came to the throne the monarch has ruled as a constitutional sovereign, that is to say, has followed the advice of ministers, and ministers have been the leaders of the winning side in the

Commons. So Parliament is supreme, not the crown. People who did not clearly foresee what would happen, thought that after the Reform Bill the Whigs, or Liberals, would remain in power for another long period, say thirty or forty years, just as the Tories had remained before; but this turned out a complete mistake. Since it has become easy to consult the country by a general election, it is now more frequently consulted; and now neither political party is likely to be able to keep its opponents out of office for any very long period of time.

XXXIV.—FREE-TRADE.

The period from 1825 to 1850 is sometimes called the Epoch of Reform. We have already seen one great reforming measure—the Reform Bill—which made Parliament really represent the nation. But there were many other measures of a similar kind. There were the Factory Acts, which have been already mentioned, and there was a reform in the Criminal Law, which had been extraordinarily severe. Men might be hanged for all sorts of offences; for example, for stealing five shillings' worth of goods from a shop, or for stealing at night with a blackened face, or for wounding cattle, or for sending threatening letters. All this severity did nothing to stop crime; rather it increased it. A thief who knew that he might be hanged for stealing did not hesitate to murder as well if it made his crime easier to commit: the punishment was no worse. Between 1810 and 1845 no less than 1400 persons were executed for crimes which are no longer punish-

Epoch of Reform.

The Criminal Law.

able with death. Thanks to Samuel Romilly, Mackintosh, and Sir Robert Peel, these harsh laws were one by one abolished, and the death sentence was reserved for murder and treason.

Another reform was made in the Poor-law. During the distress of the long war, kind-hearted men who saw how dear bread was and how badly the farm-labourers were paid, had taken to helping them with allowances from the rates. This was well-meant, but perfectly disastrous, because it lowered wages and encouraged the lazy to become paupers. They were kept fairly comfortable, while industrious men who were too proud and too honest to ask for help, had to pay a share of the high rates on which the lazy and shiftless were supported. The New Poor-law stopped this wholesale giving of outdoor relief, and made paupers go into workhouses: as they did not like this, they were more ready to work hard for themselves.

The New Poor-law, 1834.

Another great injustice was set right by putting an end to the oaths and laws which had prevented Catholics from sitting in Parliament. This was especially unjust to Ireland, where the greater number of the people were Catholic. A great Irish patriot named O'Connell was elected member for Clare; he was not allowed to sit in Parliament. Ireland seemed on the verge of civil war. Peel and Wellington, who were at the head of the Government, saw that though they did not themselves approve of Catholic Emancipation, they must yield, or run the risk of another Irish rebellion. They wisely gave way; and now no one would dream of excluding a man from Parliament because of his religion.

Catholic Emancipation, 1829.

The slave-trade, too, was abolished in 1807, and,

later, slavery itself was put an end to in British dominions (1834). It was only just that Britain should be the first to recognize the wickedness of slavery, since for many years she had been most vigorous in carrying it on.

These were all great reforms; two of them we have seen joined with the name of Peel; but this statesman was destined to carry a greater reform still, namely the abolition of the Corn-laws and the establishment of Free-trade. Curiously enough he at first disliked Free-trade, as he had disliked Catholic Emancipation. In each case his change of view made his followers furiously angry. People often hate a statesman who changes his mind; they call him a traitor. Peel's followers were wrong; and Peel was right, as everyone now admits, in changing his policy when he found it was necessary for the welfare of the country to do so.

Peel.

We have already seen something of the old mercantile system. The jealousies which it had fostered had helped to ruin the Darien Company; to escape from its restrictions Scotland had accepted the Union; chiefly also to escape the same restrictions, our American colonies had rebelled against us. Put shortly, the central idea was to protect British industries: it was thought that thus the country would be prosperous, and if we were to export a great deal more than we imported we should gain much money and so grow rich. Further, it was held that Britain ought to grow enough corn to feed her own people. So with the idea of encouraging the home corn-grower, taxes were laid on foreign corn.

Mercantile System.

For a time the system worked well enough: under it Britain did become a busy manufacturing country. But the growth of industry led to a growth of popu-

lation; when small villages suddenly grew into big towns, it was impossible to grow enough corn at a moderately cheap rate to feed the new population. Besides, home industries under the mercantile system grew very quarrelsome. For example, men who made salt from brine urged that a tax should be put on the rock-salt workers, because they feared they would be ruined; wool workers clamoured against cotton and silk workers, because they said that if people bought cotton and silk goods they would buy less woollens; and so on. Each cantankerous set always professed to be looking at the good of the country; really they only cared for their own pockets.

In 1776 a Scot named Adam Smith published a great book called the *Wealth of Nations*, to prove that all these old-fashioned plans were useless. He preached the doctrine of Free-trade. If trade is made free, he urged, each trade will naturally go the way that is best; and what is best for the one, is best also for the mass. Therefore, he said, let us abolish all restrictions and duties which hamper trade.

Adam Smith and Free-trade.

Adam Smith soon had many followers. The younger Pitt abolished a great many duties and simplified others. It was indeed high time, for our customs duties had grown so complex that scarcely anyone understood them all. The same article often paid many different duties; to bring a pound of nutmegs into the country nine duties had to be paid. Huskisson followed in Pitt's footsteps. He altered the Navigation Acts, which had prevented goods coming to Britain in foreign ships; he reduced the duties on wool, on silk, on timber, and numerous other things. Shipbuilders, manufacturers, spinners, weavers, cried out that they would

Huskisson, 1823.

be ruined. Much to their surprise they all became a great deal more prosperous and busy. The fact was, that so long as we would not take goods from abroad, foreigners could not buy much from us, because it was difficult to pay in money. Directly, however, that France, for example, was free to send us wines, vinegar, silks, and lace, they could be exchanged for British iron, cottons, and woollens. That many of the duties were absolutely useless was further shown by the fact that they actually brought in less money than was spent in collecting them. So by degrees restrictions on manufactures were abolished.

This, however, was only half-way towards Free-trade. There were still the Corn-laws, which, it was said, were for the good of the British farmer.

The Corn-laws. When it was proposed to abolish these and import corn into the country free of duty, all who held land or worked on it cried out in indignation that if this were done they would be ruined.

It was easy to show that the Corn-laws made bread dearer than it need have been; that in times of scarcity artisans were starving because the law forbade cheap corn to be brought from abroad. But there was more than this. The Corn-laws were not doing any good to either farmers or farm-labourers. The price of corn was high, certainly; but the higher it went, the higher went the rent, so that the landlord was really the only one to benefit. Thus the Corn-laws taxed the food of the poor, and filled the pockets of the rich.

The man who made this clear to the nation was Richard Cobden. He went up and down the country

Cobden. speaking and arguing; he found a helper in John Bright; he started the Anti-Corn-law League to spread his ideas. Everywhere he

strove to make the electors choose only those who were ready to vote against the Corn-laws.

Cobden's work, however, was but half done. The Free-traders in the Commons indeed were growing in numbers, and the Whig party favoured them; but the Tories were in power with Peel at their head, and Peel was believed to have given his pledge to stand by the Corn-laws. Suddenly the potato-rot began in Ireland; the chief article of food for a whole people failed; if the Irish were to be saved from starvation corn must be sent thither, and to get the corn it would be necessary to admit foreign corn free of duty. Here was the Free-traders' chance. "Famine," said John Bright, "against which we had warred, joined us." Peel saw that the ports must be opened to let in corn from abroad; and he saw further that it would be impossible ever to close them again. His followers would not listen to him. They decided against free corn, and Peel resigned. However, Lord John Russell could not form a Whig Ministry, and Peel had to come back. The sight was a strange one—a Tory minister, supported by the Whigs and a few of his own friends, and opposed by the party that had placed him in power, proposed the very measure he had been relied on to reject. Yet, amid the most bitter attacks, the most galling charges of desertion and treachery, Peel held on his way. The hour for Free-trade had come, and it was his duty to carry it.

The Irish Famine.

Repeal of the Corn-laws, 1846.

With the Corn-laws went the last relics of the old system. Britain set the world the example of the first free-trading country. The example has not indeed been followed. Other countries have hesitated to copy us; as a rule they are doubtful about

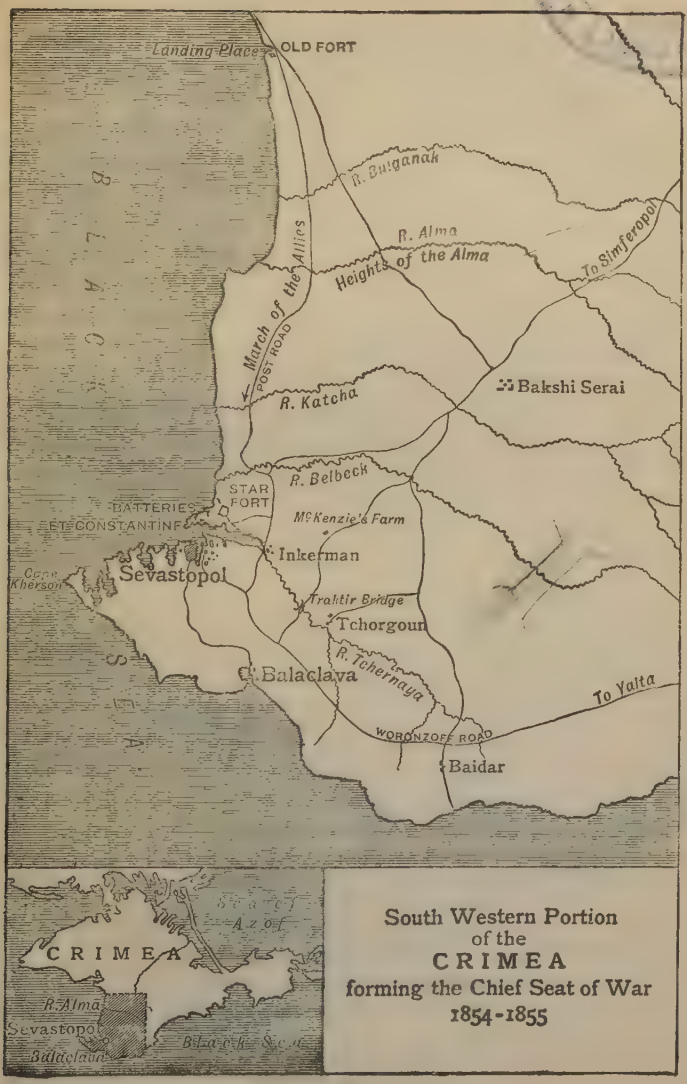
our wisdom. There are still persons even in Britain who seem to wish for some form of Protection. But on one thing all agree. We could never go back to the Corn-laws and wheat at 70*s.* or 80*s.* the quarter.

XXXV.—CRIMEAN WAR. INDIAN MUTINY

With Free-trade came a period of great industrial prosperity in Britain. After the Great Exhibition in 1851, to which masses of foreigners came to see British goods and to exhibit their own, a number of people began to think that European wars were at an end, and that, for the future, states would content themselves with friendly rivalry in trade and commerce. This was an unduly hopeful view. The course of the next ten years was to see Britain engaged in two great struggles.

We have followed British ambition in many fields: till the end of the fifteenth century in France; in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries mainly in America; now principally in the East. As our Indian empire has grown we have come to rule more Mohammedans, and to be more concerned in Eastern affairs, than any other state in the world. Our most dangerous rival has of late been Russia. Thus it has been part of our policy to help Turkey against Russia, and most of all to guard against Russia getting Constantinople; to protect our Indian frontier from Russian attack; and lately to check Russian power in China. Fifty years ago, however, Russia had hardly become dangerous

Rivalry with Russia in the East.



South Western Portion
of the
CRIMEA
forming the Chief Seat of War
1854-1855

either in India or China; but it seemed likely that she might overthrow Turkey completely. So Britain and France joined together to aid the Turks.

To cripple the power of Russia in the Black Sea it was resolved to attack the fortress of Sevastopol. A British and French army was landed and won the battle of the Alma, and had the allies pushed on at once they might have taken Sevastopol with a rush. The generals, however, were over-cautious. They marched round to the southern side of the city, and began a regular siege. This was likely to be a long business.

The Crimean War, 1854–56.

The Russians soon showed that they did not mean to leave the allies to conduct the siege quietly. First they made an attack on Balaclava, the port where all the British stores lay. The British were outnumbered, but two famous cavalry charges saved the day. The Heavies rode at an immense mass of Russian cavalry uphill, fought their way through them, and broke them. The Light Brigade, mistaking an order, charged the Russian guns. Tennyson tells us how—

The Balaclava Charges.

"Storm'd at by shot and shell,
Boldly they rode and well,
Into the jaws of Death,
Into the mouth of Hell
Rode the Six Hundred.

Flash'd all their sabres bare,
Flash'd as they turn'd in air
Sabring the gunners there,
Charging an army, while
All the world wonder'd:
Plunged in the battery smoke
Right through the line they broke.
. . . . . .
Then they rode back, but not—
Not the Six Hundred."

If Balaclava should be ever remembered to the honour of our cavalry, Inkerman was as glorious for our infantry. In the gray dawn of a November morning the Russians flung 40,000 men on the British lines. Our troops were surprised. The Russians were five to one, and made sure of victory, but they did not know that the British soldier cared nothing for odds. Wherever the Russians appeared they were met with the bayonet; a British company would charge a regiment; a regiment break a Russian column. Desperate hand-to-hand fighting at last won the day, and hurled the Russians back into Sevastopol.

Inkerman, 1854.

All this made people at home proud of our army, but it did little to take Sevastopol. Winter came on, cold and piercing. The troops were badly supplied with food and shelter. In the hospital at Scutari the sick and wounded were dying for want of nursing. Hearing of this, Miss Florence Nightingale volunteered to go out. Other ladies went with her. To her kind and gentle care many a British soldier owed his life. By her efforts the hospital was set in order. She let nothing stand in the way of the good of her wounded men. One night some stores which she wanted urgently were refused on the ground that they could not be given without a signed order. She would not allow the wounded to die on account of absurd rules of this kind. She had the stores opened, and took what she wanted.

Miss Florence Nightingale.

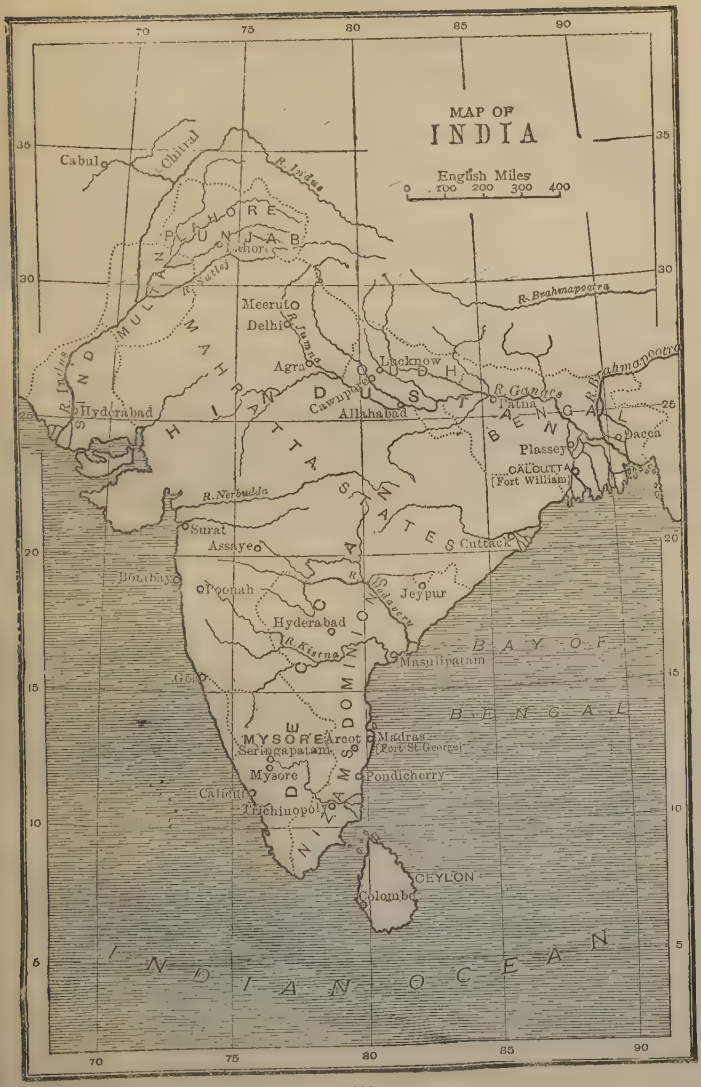
At last the British and French lines drew closer to Sevastopol. The fire of the Russian guns was beaten down. The French made an assault, and took the great fort called the Malakhoff. After this the Russians could not hold the town, and it fell. Peace was made in 1856.

The Crimean war did little to check Russia. In twenty years all the arrangements of the peace were overthrown. But it made the War Office at home wake up to the need of reforms. It was in the Crimean war that newspaper correspondents first sent home full and trustworthy accounts of how our men were faring. Britain learnt the truth about war. It was not a pleasant truth. We had got out of the habit of making war, and at first everything went wrong. Transport, commissariat, hospitals—all were grossly mismanaged. The lesson of our failures has been, we may hope, laid to heart. But with the new enterprise of war correspondents, who are in the thick of the marching and fighting, it is clear that if mismanagement exists it will always be made known; and the Government will be called to account for it if men are half-starved, left without shelter in winter, badly shod, or neglected in hospital. So far, the war correspondent, though undoubtedly a nuisance to generals, is a valuable friend to the rank and file.

Results of the Crimean War.

In a year we were again engaged in war—this time in India. Since the days of Warren Hastings, the East India Company had steadily extended its power. One native prince after another had seen his dominions taken by the Company; those who remained thought their turn would come next. Thus they were ready to rebel, when an accident made rebellion easy. The Sepoys were given a new rifle, and the cartridges for it had to be greased. The story went about that the grease was made of pigs' fat and cows' fat. To a Mohammedan the pig is unclean, and a Hindoo holds the cow to be sacred. He believed that if he handled these cartridges he would be defiled; he would lose caste,—that is to say, his friends would despise him; and he also believed that he would be

India.


MAP OF
INDIA
English Miles
0 100 200 300 400
70
75
80
85
90
35
30
25
20
15
10
5
Cabul
Chitral
R. Indus
BALUCHISTAN
PUNJAB
Lahore
R. Sutlej
SINDE
Meerut
Delhi
R. Jumna
Agra
Lucknow
OUDH
R. Brahmapootra
R. Ganges
Patna
BENGAL
Dacca
Plassey
CALCUTTA
[Fort William]
Hyderabad
R. Indus
Caunpur
Allahabad
HINDOOSTAN
R. Nerbudda
Surat
Assaye
Cuttack
Bombay
Poonah
Jeypur
R. Godavery
Hyderabad
R. Kistna
Masulipatam
BAY OF
BENGAL
Goa
MYSORE
Seringapatam
Arcot
Madras
[Fort St. George]
Mysore
Pondicherry
Calicut
Trichinopoly
CEYLON
Colombo
INDIAN OCEAN

punished for his offence in the next world. Thus the Sepoys became mutinous. At Meerut they fired on their British officers, and marched off to Delhi. At Lucknow a tiny British garrison under Sir Henry Lawrence was besieged in the Residency by hosts of natives. At Cawnpore there were about a thousand British men, women, and children. They took refuge in a hospital surrounded by a low mud wall, not thick enough to stop the bullets. There was no shelter from the scorching Indian sun; the one well was swept by the mutineers' fire; every man who went to draw water did it at the risk of his life. One by one the defenders fell. Still, the mutineers could not storm the wall. Nana Sahib, who commanded them, determined to do by treachery what he could not do by force. He offered the British to send them away by river, but when they were embarked his men shot them down from the banks. A few women and children were saved for a worse fate. They were imprisoned in a house for a few days. Then murderers were sent in to butcher them with swords. It is no wonder that when the British troops again entered Cawnpore they cried for a bitter vengeance on the mutineers.

The Indian Mutiny, 1857.

The Massacre at Cawnpore.

First, however, Delhi had to be taken. It was a desperate task for a mere handful of British troops to capture a great city swarming with mutineers. Yet it was done. John Lawrence, governor of the Punjab, sent every man he could spare to help the scanty force clinging to the Delhi ridge, themselves rather besieged than besieging. He sent, too, an officer, John Nicholson, who saw that Delhi must be taken at all hazards. Nothing could resist Nicholson's fiery courage. Breaches were

Delhi taken.

made in the walls. The Kashmir Gate was blown up. The troops rushed in. Nicholson headed a storming party, and was mortally wounded in the streets; but he had done his work. Delhi was taken, and the British power in India saved.

Meantime Lucknow held out bravely against numberless assaults. The walls crumbled under cannon fire; mines were exploded under the feet of the garrison. The commander, Henry Lawrence, brother of the governor of the Punjab, was killed by a shell. At last Havelock reached them with a relieving force. It is said that the first token which the garrison had of his being close at hand was given by a Scottish girl, who above the din of the firing heard the pipes of Havelock's Highlanders. It was a welcome sound to the garrison, worn out with eighty-seven days' siege and privations.

Lucknow relieved.

By degrees more British troops reached India, and Sir Colin Campbell was able to put down the last remains of the mutiny. Of the mutineers those who were proved guilty of murder were punished, but the governor-general, Lord Canning, was wise enough to forbid any kind of vengeance. At the time many people thought him weak and foolish to be so merciful, and called him in derision "Clemency Canning", but the name has become a title of honour to the man who refused to allow his countrymen to soil themselves by deeds as cruel as those of the mutineers.

When the mutiny was over it was felt that the time had come to take India from the hands of the old East India Company, so the Company was dissolved, and all the Indian government put under the crown. There is now a secretary for India, who sits in the Cabinet, and India is ruled by a British Viceroy, British civil

Dissolution of the East India Company, 1858.

servants, and British officials. The number of British troops has been increased, and the artillery is kept entirely in British hands. There are still some states in India where native rulers hold power, but they have a British resident at their courts, and they would not be allowed to make war on each other, or injure British interests. Lastly, in 1877 Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India, and the native rulers now own the British monarch as their sovereign.

XXXVI.

GREAT PARLIAMENTARY LEADERS—PALMERSTON, DISRAELI, GLADSTONE.

Four names are connected with most of our parliamentary history since the Reform Bill—those of Peel, Palmerston, Disraeli, and Gladstone. They were all great leaders in the House of Commons, the place from which a statesman can exercise the highest influence. Since the retirement of Gladstone no one has had the same chance of occupying as great a position, for both Lord Salisbury and Lord Rosebery, the Conservative and Liberal prime ministers, have been in the House of Lords. A member of the Lords may be a capable prime minister and an excellent statesman, but he cannot be a great parliamentary leader in the sense that both the Pitts and the four men mentioned above were great, because he cannot sit in the Commons and sway the House by his speeches, nor can he take any active part at elections.

When in 1846 Peel gave Britain free-trade in corn, and was, within a few days of the passing of the Act, driven from office by those Tories whom he had

angered by what they called his treachery, he was less than sixty years of age. It might have been thought that a man who was in reality so much respected, whom even his bitterest foe, Disraeli, described as being "the greatest member of Parliament" that had ever lived, would survive to become prime minister again. But it was not so. Peel died in 1850 from a fall from his horse without ever again holding office.

His death left Lord Palmerston, an Irish peer, the man most trusted by the nation. Although a Whig, Palmerston was by no means the sort of leader modern Liberals would follow. He had no liking for great legislative measures or changes. He was opposed to any further lowering of the franchise, and so long as he lived he would have nothing to do with more reform in Parliament. As most men trusted Palmerston, they too were quite willing to see him put off reform, and generally leave home affairs alone.

Palmerston.

In foreign policy, on the other hand, Palmerston displayed an activity which his party nowadays would think to be contrary to their traditions. As foreign minister he liked to do as he wished, "to make strokes off his own bat", as he said, and twice he gave much offence to the Queen by doing things without consulting her. On the second occasion he had to resign. Men said "Palmerston is smashed", but he knew better. When the news of the Crimean winter came home, and Britain heard the stories of the neglect and stupidity at head-quarters—of coffee sent out unroasted, and consignments of boots all to fit the left foot,—there was great anger with Aberdeen's government. Aberdeen resigned, and the only man that the country would accept as prime minister

was Palmerston. It was a time of trouble, and a strong man was wanted. It was said that "we turned out the Quaker and put in the Pugilist". Palmerston made an excellent pugilist. He brought the Crimean War to an end; he too had to deal with the dangers of the Mutiny, and he did so with a firm hand. So great was the trust that Britons felt in him, that even when he went wrong they preferred his rule to that of anyone else. On one occasion we got into a dispute with China because the Chinese had boarded a Chinese vessel flying the British flag. It had no right to fly it, and the Chinese were doing us no injury. Palmerston, however, said our flag was insulted, and went to war about it. His enemies in Parliament thought this a good chance to attack him. Gladstone, Disraeli, Lord John Russell, and Bright, men of very different opinions, all fell on him and defeated him. Palmerston did not resign, but dissolved Parliament; the electors sent him back with a large majority. Several of his opponents lost their seats.

The secret of his power was that he was a thorough Briton; he believed in his country, his country believed in him. So for ten years, with one short interval, he remained prime minister. He was often supported by many who did not, strictly speaking, belong to his party, because he was not a party man. It was not till his death, in 1865, that the modern division between Liberals and Conservatives was clearly drawn.

Gladstone and the Party of the People.

In Palmerston's ministry Gladstone had been chancellor of the exchequer. He had shown great skill in dealing with money matters. He was so attractive a speaker that he could make even the figures of a budget interesting.

But he had a very different idea of the duties of his party from Palmerston. Palmerston knew that he would make great changes. "Whenever he gets my place," he said, "we shall have strange doings."

Gladstone aimed at putting power really into the hands of the masses. He was not a Whig; he was rather a Radical. He began to break the connection with the old-fashioned Whig party, which had been largely made up of men well born and from old or wealthy families. Gladstone's party, the Liberals, was to be the party of the people; his policy that of "Peace, Retrenchment, and Reform".

Thus Gladstone's ministries are marked by great legislative measures. He caused the state to undertake all sorts of duties, instead of leaving them to private persons; and whatever he thought to be unjust, ineffective, or useless he tried to set right, improve, or abolish, without regarding whether it had existed for a long time or not. Thus he passed the Education Act, which increased the number of schools, showing that the Government intended everyone to learn at least to read and write; and the Ballot Act, which secured voters from being influenced at elections, by making it impossible to find out how they had voted. He abolished the system whereby officers in the army could buy promotion, and so threw the highest ranks in the army open to any man who showed great ability. Further, he disestablished the Irish Protestant Church because it was not the church of the people at large, and he carried an Irish Land Act which improved the position of Irish tenants. He saw that Ireland had had bad government, and he hoped to satisfy Irishmen by his reforms. As we shall see, he was not successful.

Great Measures.

Opposed to Gladstone stood Disraeli. He had

become the leader of the Protectionist Tories who had rebelled against Peel. But Disraeli was much too clever to think that anything could be done with "Protection" as a party cry. He set himself, in his own phrase, "to educate his party". He knew that if the Liberals offered reforms, the Conservatives could not afford to lag behind. He had once said of Peel's action in taking over the Whig measure of free-trade, that "Peel had caught the Whigs bathing, and had walked away with their clothes". It was exactly what he came to do himself. Thus in 1867, when the Liberals were crying out for reform in the franchise, he resolved to take the wind out of their sails by a Reform Bill of his own. He passed a most Radical measure, giving household franchise in the towns. It was, as Lord Derby described it, "a leap in the dark", yet all the same, in Disraeli's words, "it dished the Whigs". The Conservatives took the credit.

Disraeli. Educating a Party.

Yet Disraeli was much more than a clever party leader. The Liberal cry was "Peace, Retrenchment, and Reform". He too would be a reformer. But he recognized that peace and retrenchment could be carried too far. Britain needs must be at war sometimes; to shrink from war would make other nations try to override us; to make war cheaply was to make it badly. Disraeli in fact was an Imperialist. He believed in the British empire; he wished to extend it, to make its power felt abroad, even at the risk of war. Thus he sent the British fleet to Constantinople in 1878, when the Russian armies were within striking distance of the town. This firmness made Russia pause and agree to the Treaty of Berlin. Disraeli himself, by this time made Lord Beaconsfield, went to the Conference,

Disraeli an Imperialist.

and returned bringing, as he said, "Peace with Honour". He had made Britain play a great and dignified part, and Britain was proud of him. Another stroke of his policy was his purchase by telegram of about £4,000,000 shares in the Suez Canal, which the Khedive wished to sell. The Canal is very important to us as a maritime and colonial power, and we thus got a powerful voice in its management.

Thus Disraeli made his party willing to consider reforms, and he made it imperialist. This has become of great consequence, because in late years most Britons have grown to think a great deal more of the empire than they did fifteen years ago. Among other things that have caused this growth of imperialist feeling were the two jubilees of Queen Victoria, and the enthusiasm which not only all at home, but her scattered subjects all over the world, felt for her. We hold peace to be a good thing, but if events in China or Africa should call us to war, we do not shrink from war. So with this growth of imperialist ideas Gladstone's party cry of Peace and Retrenchment has become out of date and unpopular.

When in 1880 Disraeli's ministry fell and Gladstone came in again, he intended to pursue the same policy as before — namely, to make reforms at home, and interfere as little as possible abroad. He was not, however, successful. He had a war against the Boers of the Transvaal, which ended disastrously; and he was drawn to interfere in Egypt. We shall see more of these events in the next chapter. But what stood in Gladstone's way even more than affairs in the Transvaal and in Egypt, was the Irish party. They were trying to get Home Rule. The Irish members in the House of

Gladstone and Ireland.

Commons did their best to hamper Gladstone's legislation. In Ireland many tenants refused to pay their rents. Landlords and bailiffs were threatened and fired on. Some violent and reckless men used dynamite for outrage and intimidation. At last the Irish secretary, Lord Frederick Cavendish, was stabbed in Phoenix Park. In consequence Gladstone, who had always wished to rule Ireland mildly, was compelled to pass very severe measures to keep order there.

At length he became convinced that the policy of severity, of "coercion", as it was called, was a failure, and he resolved to grant Home Rule. This meant to repeal the Union of 1800. A number of Liberals, headed by Mr. Bright, Lord Hartington, Mr. Chamberlain, and Mr. Goschen, would not agree to this. They broke off from Gladstone, and, taking the title of Liberal Unionists, supported Lord Salisbury. The Home Rule Bill was rejected; and though six years later Gladstone got it through the House of Commons, it was thrown out in the Lords. So far, the bulk of opinion in England and Scotland has been against it, but Ireland remains strongly in favour of it.

Home Rule.

Thus Ireland proved a great stumbling-block in Gladstone's way. First he made the Irish hate him because he had to pass stern laws against the crimes that went on in Ireland; and then, when he tried to satisfy the Irish by promising Home Rule, he wrecked his own party in doing so. In consequence, his latter years were so much taken up with Irish legislation that many of his ideas of reform at home had to be abandoned. Yet, though in this latter period we do not find so many striking measures, there are some: the lowering of the franchise, by

which agricultural labourers got votes in 1884; and the Parish Councils Bill, which allowed rural districts to govern themselves, may stand as examples.

Gladstone retired in 1894, and died four years after. We are still too close to him to be able to form a confident judgment about his work. He has not yet passed into the province of history. The view we take is sure to be tinged by our political opinions. One party will look too much at his failures, the other at his successes. No doubt both successes and failures were on a grand scale. He has been worshipped, and hated. He raised his party to a wonderful height of popularity; in his latter days he brought it to the ground in confusion and humiliation. Time alone will enable the historian to strike a just balance.

XXXVII.—BRITISH POWER IN AFRICA.

The result of the long wars during the eighteenth century, ending with the struggle against Napoleon, was to leave Britain almost alone as a colonial power. Spain and Portugal indeed kept some of their colonies, but they gave little attention to them. In consequence, those that did not revolt were badly governed, and made no progress. Only British colonies seemed to prosper. But lately there has arisen in European nations a fresh desire for colonies. Germany, France, Italy, recognizing that much of Britain's power comes from her colonial empire, have begun to strive to spread their power abroad also. Russia, too, has held steadily to a policy of extending her dominions eastward in Asia; and lately the United States have embarked on the same

The Expansion of Europe.

course by taking Cuba and the Philippine Islands. In China, too, we see the European powers in rivalry for trading liberties, spheres of influence, and naval stations. But in no part of the world is this new European colonial spirit, this imitation of British policy, more marked than in Africa.

The Scramble for Africa.

Twenty years ago, save in the South and in the valley of the Nile, the European settlements formed a scanty fringe on the coast. African colonies could not prosper while this was the case, for as a rule the climate of the coast is deadly to Europeans. Sierra Leone is called "the White Man's Grave", but many other coast stations equally deserve the name. The interior, being higher, is more free from the fevers that haunt the marshy coasts of East and West Africa. But much of the interior was then a No-man's Land, only half explored, belonging to savage tribes who owned no European masters. Now, however, almost the whole continent is parcelled out among European nations. We shall see in this chapter how Britain has fared in this "scramble for Africa".

Cape Colony came finally into our hands from the Dutch in 1815. It was only very gradually that our power spread inland. At first the colonists had to contend with the Kaffirs, and many wars were fought ere these were reduced to obedience. Further, the Boers, the descendants of the Dutch colonists, did not get on well with the British, and in 1835 some thousands of them trekked northwards, taking with them wives and children, flocks and herds, and settled in Natal. This was annexed by Britain, so many Boers moved farther inland and founded the Orange Free State and the Transvaal Republic, so as to get clear of British rule. It was not till 1854 that Cape

Lake Tanganyika
GERMAN EAST AFRICA
Lake Leopold
CONGO STATE (Belgian)
L. Mweru
L. Bangweolo
BRIT. C. AFRICA
Lake Nyassa
R. Zambezi
ANGOLA (Portuguese)
BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA
BAROTSE COUNTRY
RHODESIA
L. Shirwa
R. Kwando
MASHONALAND
Salisbury
Victoria Falls
Gwelo
Charter
Umtali
Beira
MATABELE LAND
Buluwayo
GERMAN DAMARALAND
L. Ngami
KHAMA'S COUNTRY
Tati
Palapye
GAZA LAND
PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA
SOUTH WEST AFRICA
BECHUANALAND (Protectorate)
Molopolole
TRANSVAAL
Pretoria
Mafeking
Johannesburg
Vryburg
Bechuanaland
Kuruman
(To Cape Colony)
GREAT NAMAQUA LAND
ORANGE RIV. COLONY
Kimberley
Bloemfontein
Orange R.
Port Nolloth
CAPE COLONY
Ponco Land
Zulu Land
Tonga Land
Delagoa B.
INDIAN OCEAN
Cradock
East London
Williams Town
Port Elizabeth
Worcester
Cape Town
C. of Good Hope
Table B.
Algoa Bay
British Possessions in SOUTH AFRICA.
English Miles
0 100 200 300

Colony held its first parliament. The same year saw the appointment as governor of Sir George Grey, whose name will always be gratefully remembered in South Africa as the statesman whose wise rule began the new era of prosperity.

The Zulu and Boer Wars.

By degrees British power spread northwards. The discovery of diamonds at Kimberley led to the adding of Griqualand. Under Disraeli, who never shrank from adding to the empire, the Zulus were subdued after hard fighting, and the Transvaal annexed. The Boers, however, rebelled; their men, being excellent shots and skilled in an irregular warfare among rocky and broken country, completely defeated the British forces. In the last battle, at Majuba Hill, the British commander, Sir George Colley, was killed. Gladstone, who thought that the annexation of the Transvaal had been unjust, gave back to the Boers a modified form of independence; Britain was to remain suzerain of the Transvaal, and the Boer Government was not allowed to make treaties with foreign powers unless Britain gave her consent.

This did not at the time seem very important, save that it is not usual to see Britain give up claims which she has once asserted. The case was altered by the discovery of the gold-mines of the Rand. Very soon there were thousands of Britons in the Transvaal. Johannesburg became mainly a British city. As Paul Krüger, the president of the Transvaal, would not grant the Uitlanders (foreigners) the rights of citizens, and yet made them pay very heavy taxes, a bitter hostility to him sprang up. This came to a head at the end of 1895. A rebellion was planned in Johannesburg, and Dr. Jameson led a few hundreds of the British South African Company's

Jameson's Raid.

men on a raid into the Transvaal. This lawless expedition was an utter failure. The Johannesburg plotters were disarmed. The Boers were ready to receive Jameson, who had to surrender at Dornkop. All the results were disastrous. Although our Government had had nothing to do with "Jameson's raid", and entirely disapproved of it, our enemies in South Africa all asserted that we had been trying to overthrow Krüger in an underhand way. Britain was made to appear in the wrong, and the Uitlanders in the Transvaal were treated still worse.

As a result of the "Raid" the Cape prime minister, Mr. Cecil Rhodes, resigned: his resignation was a blow to British interests in South Africa, because he had done so much to spread our power. To him we owe the great territory called after his name—Rhodesia. As managing director of the British South African Company he had extended our rule over Mashonaland and Matabeleland, hemming in the Transvaal, and taking the British flag northwards to the Zambesi, whence it has since gone to Lake Nyassa and Lake Tanganyika. This district is fertile, well watered, and fairly healthy. Mr. Rhodes has shown wonderful skill in dealing with savages. On one occasion, when the Matabele had been besieging Buluwayo and killing every white man who fell into their hands, he went out unarmed into the Matabele camp, and there at the risk of his life discussed on what terms peace could be made.

Mr. Cecil Rhodes.

We have no space to speak of the work which has been done under British rule in British Central Africa by Sir Harry Johnston, in West Africa on the Niger by Sir George Goldie, and in British East Africa, which reaches up to the Victoria Nyanza, and so joins

on to the southern borders of the Sudan. In all these countries slave-trading is put down, war and violence is being repressed, trade is spreading, and steamboats are running on the rivers and lakes. Mr. Rhodes is now planning a railway to join the Cape to Cairo. Many miles have to be crossed between Buluwayo in Rhodesia and Khartoum, which is to be for the present the terminus of the Sudan railway. But if this immense line is completed, it will run for almost the whole of its length through territory either British or under British influence.

Hitherto we have spoken of the increase of British possessions in Africa. But perhaps the most striking example of the spread of our influence has been in a country which is not a British possession—Egypt.

Egypt.

Not only was the Suez Canal vitally important to us as the great maritime nation of the world, but we, as well as other European nations, had lent much money to the Egyptian Government. To prevent Egypt being altogether misruled and going bankrupt, France and Britain had set up the Dual Control in Egypt, by which they promised to keep Tewfik, who ruled the country as Viceroy of the Sultan of Turkey, on the throne, so long as he governed fairly well. In 1882 an Egyptian soldier named Arabi began a revolt against Tewfik, and seized Alexandria. Riots began; Europeans were plundered and murdered. It was plainly necessary to interfere. France, however, refused to join, so Britain had to act alone. Alexandria was bombarded by our fleet, and an army sent under Sir Garnet Wolseley met Arabi's forces at Tel-el-kebir, and scattered them.

The Bombardment of Alexandria, 1882.

It would have been easy to have declared Egypt to

be under British protection, but we did not aim at this. What we wanted was to restore order and give Egypt a good government. Our occupation of the country was to last until it seemed that Egypt was fit to govern itself. This object has been steadily pursued; while on the one hand we have firmly refused "to be worried out of Egypt" by the hostility of France, we have not regarded it as a British possession. We have abolished the forced service to which the fellahin or peasants were liable; we have done away with flogging and torture, and set up a better system of justice; we have improved the system of irrigation, so that all cultivators get a fair share of the Nile floods which make their land fertile; we have diminished taxes, and yet rescued Egypt from the threatened bankruptcy; and we have re-created the Egyptian army.

Arabi's defeat showed how worthless the old army was, but this was made still more clear by events in the Sudan. A fanatic prophet, the Mahdi, gathered a body of Dervish followers, and beat the Egyptian troops wherever he met them. Numbers flocked to his standard. Hicks, with an Egyptian force of 10,000 men, was utterly routed at Shekan. 1883. Scarcely a man escaped. Khartoum, to which the British Government had sent General Gordon to try to restore order, was besieged. At last Gladstone despatched a British force to rescue Gordon. After hard fighting it drew near Khartoum—too late. Two days before, the town had been stormed and Gordon murdered.

The Sudan was lost. What had been a prosperous country was given up to brutal and ignorant savages. The Dervishes even tried to invade Egypt. But the Egyptian army had been put on a better footing. The

troops were paid and well cared for; drilled by British sergeants, officered by British officers, and commanded by a British Sirdar or commander-in-chief, in whom they trusted. Side by side with British troops, they stood fast against the Dervish charges at Ginniss and Toski, and routed their opponents.

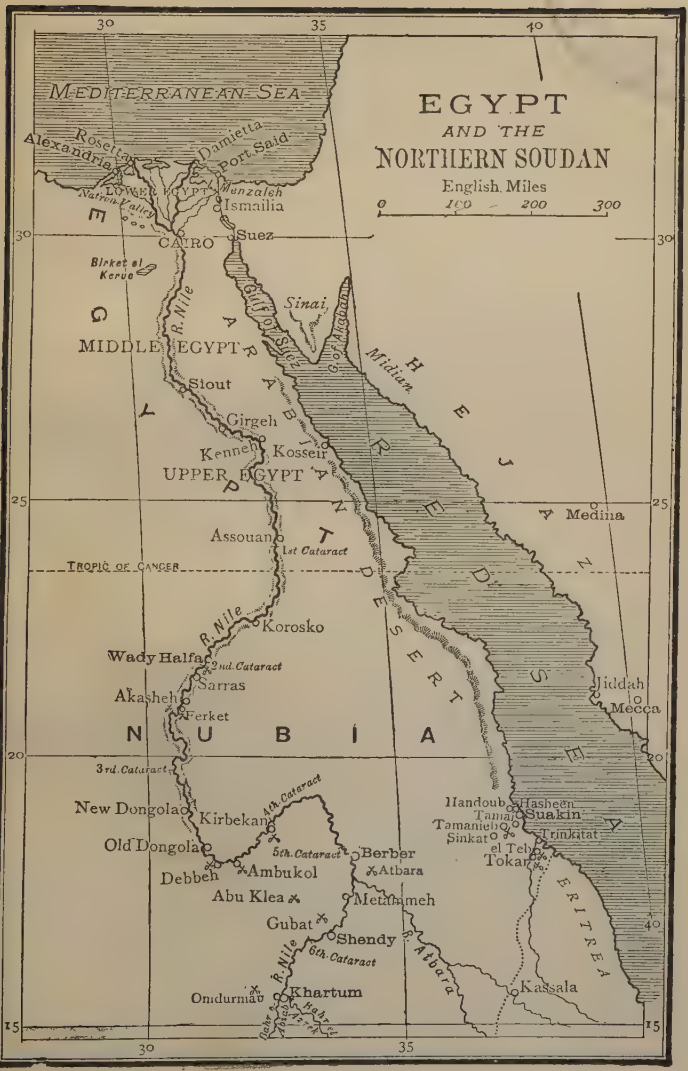
Ginniss, 1885; Toski, 1889.

The tide of barbarism had reached its flood, and was on the turn. Nine years were to pass, however, before its waves were altogether rolled back. The Mahdi had died, and the Khalifa had succeeded him. In 1896 the work of reconquest was begun by a mixed force of British and Egyptian troops under the new Sirdar, General Kitchener. No mistakes were made, and no risks run. In April, 1898, the Dervishes were driven from a strong position on the Atbara; in August the army drew near to Khartoum. Outside Omdurman the Dervishes fought a desperate battle, but it was their last. There were over forty thousand of them. They charged with all the reckless valour that had won victory after victory in the old days. But they had a new enemy to meet. They could not stand before the deadly volleys poured on them. In the evening Khartoum, after thirteen years of Dervish rule, was recovered for the Egyptian government. Not the least satisfactory part of the day was the steadiness of the Egyptian soldiers. They proved themselves worthy companions of their British allies.

Battle of Omdurman, 1898.

Directly after the battle of Omdurman, news was brought that Fashoda, a town south of Khartoum on the White Nile, was in the hands of the French. An expedition headed by Captain Marchand had occupied it. Since Fashoda was part of the Egyptian Sudanese province, this was an

The French at Fashoda.


EGYPT
AND THE
NORTHERN SOUDAN
English Miles
0 100 200 300
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Rosetta
Alexandria
Damietta
Port Said
LOWER EGYPT
Natron Valley
Menzaleh
Ismailia
Suez
CAIRO
Birket el Kerun
R. Nile
Gulf of Suez
Sinai
Gulf of Akaba
MIDDLE EGYPT
Midian
Siout
Girgeh
Kenneh
Kosseir
UPPER EGYPT
ARABIAN DESERT
HEJAZ
Medina
Assouan
1st Cataract
TROPIC OF CANCER
Korosko
Wady Halfa
2nd Cataract
Sarras
Akasheh
Ferket
NUBIA
Jiddah
Mecca
3rd Cataract
4th Cataract
New Dongolah
Kirbekan
Old Dongolah
5th Cataract
Berber
Debbeh
Ambukol
Atbara
Abu Klea
Metammeh
Gubat
Shendy
6th Cataract
R. Atbara
Omdurman
Khartum
Blue R. Nile
White R. Nile
Handoub
Hasheen
Suakin
Tamai
Tamaniel
Trinkatat
Sinkat
el Teb
Tokar
ERITREA

intrusion. The British Government demanded that Marchand should withdraw. As France hesitated, there was great excitement. A war with France seemed likely. Happily the French Government saw that Marchand had no right to occupy the town, and withdrew him. The work of quieting the Sudan goes on steadily, and under a good government the province is settling down to something like the old prosperity, which it enjoyed before the ruin of the Dervish rule fell on it.

XXXVIII.—THE NEW COLONIAL SYSTEM.

We have seen that when our first American colonies shook off our rule and made themselves independent, the British people took the loss surprisingly calmly. They persuaded themselves that it was what they had expected. It was, they said, natural. Some writers even went so far as to say that sooner or later all our colonies would do the same. Like fruit on a tree, when the colonies were ripe they would drop off.

This view seemed reasonable; but time has proved it to be entirely wrong. The United States indeed "cut the painter", but no colony has followed this example. And now, as we know, the tie that joins the citizens of Greater Britain to what they all call "home", or "the old country", is closer than ever. The fact is, that the argument founded on the loss of the United States was based on the idea that we should continue to treat our other colonies as we had treated them. We have not done so. What we governed badly we have

The New Colonial System.

lost. But our statesmen have learned a lesson. What we rule well we keep. The lesson certainly was not learnt at once. For many years we continued to make grave mistakes, especially in the government of Canada. Canada's loyalty was sorely tried, and the temptation to break off was great. There was the example of the States, and the States lay just over the border, often suggesting revolt, and always ready to welcome Canada, had our colony chosen to join them. Yet Canada's loyalty survived the trial, and when days of better government came, has proved itself most devoted to the empire. What is the secret of this better government on the part of Britain?

The answer seems a strange one: The problem of how to rule better has been solved by not ruling at all. Britain has in most respects left off governing her colonies. She has given them self-government, the right to manage their own affairs, so long as they do not do anything strongly against the interest of the empire. Thus our colonists no longer wish to become independent in name, because they are already practically independent in fact. They rule their own country; yet they have the glory, the reputation, the might of their mother country, Britain, at their backs. Thus they have all the gains of independence, and none of the disadvantages of being forced to guard themselves against the attacks of powerful neighbours. The British flag covers them all.

Responsible Government.

By Pitt's Canada Act of 1791 the two provinces of Upper and Lower Canada (divided by the Ottawa River) had been given a sort of a constitution. It was, however, a pretence; the shadow of self-government, not the reality. For though each colony had elected Assemblies to make

Canada.

laws, yet the real government was in the hands of a council named by the governor sent out from England, and the Assemblies had no power over this council. In Britain Parliament can turn out ministers whom it dislikes; in Canada this could not be done. Thus ministers and Assembly were continually quarrelling.

Besides this there were other causes of complaint. Lower Canada was mainly French, Upper Canada British, and the races were jealous of each other. Then there was a small body of persons, friends of the Government, who got all the offices, and this was felt as a grievance. Thus the Canadas were both discontented. When in 1837 the *Te Deum* was sung for the accession of our Queen, many Canadians walked out of the churches. In the same year a rebellion began both in Lower and Upper Canada.

This rebellion failed; but it had one good effect: it called the attention of Britain to the feelings of the Canadians. Britain had reformed her own Parliament; she had freed her negroes: the time had come to free her colonists also. Lord Durham was sent to Canada; in some ways he acted illegally, and he was soon recalled. But he issued a *Report* which opened men's eyes at home. The outcome of it was the act of 1840, by which the two Canadas were again united and the old system abolished. Henceforth the ministers were to depend upon the support of the elected Legislative Assembly. Since the Assembly could choose its own ministers, it could in fact govern as it pleased.

This plan of "responsible government" has proved completely successful in satisfying our Canadian colonists. We shall see that it has been equally satisfactory in Australia and New Zealand. Before

we leave the story of Canada, one further reform calls for our notice.

The act of 1840 united Upper and Lower Canada; Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and British Columbia still remained separate. But the new prosperity of Canada suggested that it would be well to carry union further,—to knit all these colonies together in one federation. In the course of the years 1867–1871 this was arranged. The provinces keep their separate local assemblies to look after their local affairs, but they each send members to the Assembly of the Dominion of Canada, as the new federation is called. This Assembly deals with all general matters: state debts, loans, and taxation; banking and coinage; naval and military service; the law, the public service, and railways.

The Dominion.

This union, established by the British North America Act of 1867, and commemorated by the keeping of July 1st—"Dominion Day"—as a general holiday, has been extended to include new provinces as settlers pushed farther west and grew in numbers. Thus Manitoba and the North-west Territories have been included. Newfoundland alone stands out.

In our sketch of the Australian colonies it will not be necessary to repeat the story of the advantages of responsible government. Canada set the example. New South Wales took it up; then came Victoria, New Zealand, Tasmania, South Australia, and Queensland within the space of a few years. The last of the Australian colonies to gain responsible government has been Western Australia (1890). The course of events by which the various colonies gained their desire did not always run in the same way. The important thing to remark is that

The Australian Group.

without it they were ill content; with it they became satisfied, and grow each year more loyal. In another respect there has come to pass a further advance in imitation of what Canada has done. For many years far-sighted Australian statesmen have worked for a federation of all the Australian group of colonies. There have been many difficulties and jealousies to overcome, but the terms of federation were successfully settled, and the Commonwealth of Australia was established in 1900.

An account of our Australian colonies, however brief, would be incomplete without some reference to the great part which gold-mining has played in their development. No doubt agriculture, manufacture, commerce, are more enduring foundations for the prosperity of a country. But a new land wants capital and inhabitants to develop its resources, and unless there is a great attraction these will come slowly. Thus for many years New South Wales was thought fit for little else but a settlement for convicts; and a land in which convicts were many, even though a number of them were now leading industrious lives, was not attractive to honest folk. However, in 1849 the system of transportation was finally abolished, and close on this came the discovery of the gold-fields in New South Wales and Victoria; soon after, gold was found in Queensland; and last of all Western Australia turned out as lucky as the others. This brought a host of immigrants bent on making their fortunes. Of course they did not all succeed; but they made the fortune of Australia. The colonies became rich and populous. Many who had come to search for gold remained to engage in the less romantic tasks of farming and trading. In 1850 Victoria was sparsely peopled, its

Gold in Australia.

1850.

capital, Melbourne, scarcely more than a township. Now it is a stately city, and with its suburbs reckons near half a million inhabitants. The elder city of Sydney in New South Wales, with its magnificent natural harbour, is a city of equal size.

When we look at a map of the world, and see how wide is the red that marks the British empire, we may well feel proud. Yet there is more before us. Closely as our colonies cling to us, it would be possible to unite them still more closely. What if Britain and her colonies were to follow in the steps of Canada, and unite in one great imperial federation, possessing one great imperial parliament, in which all Britons at home and abroad were represented? There are difficulties in the way of imperial federation: our empire is widely scattered, and races are many; some of our colonies are protectionist, while Britain has for long been bound to free-trade; the great dependency of India is not yet ripe for self-government. At present imperial federation is a vision; but it is a vision that may be realized. A hundred years ago no one dreamed of crossing the Atlantic in a week, or flashing a message across in a minute. Yet steam and the telegraph are daily bringing our most remote colonies closer. As the obstacle of distance is overcome, others may be overcome also.

Imperial Federation.

Yet whatever the future holds for us, we have this fact of the present. Till now the Anglo-Saxon race is the great colonizing race of the world. No other nation has reared such vigorous children as Australia, the Cape, and Canada. No other nation has governed a great Eastern possession as we have ruled India. No other nation has seen such an offshoot from itself as we see in the

The British Colonial Spirit.

United States. Our race possesses the colonial spirit which French, Germans, and Spaniards have not shown: the daring that takes men into distant lands, the doggedness that keeps them steadfast in want and difficulties, the masterful spirit that gives them power over Eastern races, the sense of justice that saves them from abusing this power and attaches those they rule with so strange and yet so strong an attachment. No other race has ever received such devotion as the Sikh, the Ghoorka, and the black Sudanese troops are giving us. They can think of no higher honour than to stand shoulder to shoulder with British troops and conquer.

In the story of the growth of our empire there is much to make us proud. Yet there have been failures in the past, and there are many difficulties and responsibilities in the time to come, which should keep us from being boastful. We owe our empire not only to the courage and enterprise, but also to the wisdom and sense of duty which have animated the best men of our race. So long as Britain can continue to produce as great sons in the future as those who have served her in the past, there is no need to fear. Yet history shows us that the character of a nation is not necessarily permanent. It may change as the character of a man changes; the hardy simple Roman became in time feeble and luxurious, and the energetic Spaniard sank by degrees into lethargy; and should the stamp of our race show signs of deteriorating in the same way, then neither wealth at home, nor wide-spread dominions abroad could avail us. It is indeed upon the character of the British people that the future of the British empire depends.

Such a test of character came upon England in the Boer war. Some of the causes which led to it have

been already explained (p. 237). From the time of Jameson's raid onward the two Boer Republics of the Orange Free State and the Transvaal began to think of getting free from Britain. They gathered arms and stores; they refused to listen to any terms proposed by Britain, and in October, 1899, they declared war.

South African War.

At first Britain had few troops either in Cape Colony or Natal, and thus the "burghers" were able to overrun the country, and to besiege the towns where the loyalists and British troops gathered. Sir George White defended Ladysmith in Natal, Colonel Kekewich and Mr. Cecil Rhodes held Kimberley, and Colonel Baden-Powell, Mafeking. Fortunately these sieges attracted the Boer troops, and detained them while the first reinforcements under Sir Redvers Buller came out from England. When these did arrive, in the beginning of December, it was hoped the Boers would be beaten; but it was not understood how numerous they were, and what an advantage they had in being mounted and knowing the country. Then came the "black week" of December, when Lord Methuen was beaten at Magersfontein in an attempt to relieve Kimberley, General Gatacre tried a disastrous surprise at Stormberg, losing a number of men, and General Buller, striving to cross the Tugela River at Colenso in order to relieve Sir George White, was also defeated. This news roused Britain and the empire to a serious effort. Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener were sent out with numerous troops; masses of yeomanry and imperial volunteers enlisted to serve in South Africa; and from the colonies, from Australia, from New Zealand, and from Canada, contingents of horse and foot came

over to fight for the empire in the empire's time of need. So splendid a piece of loyalty soon gave us the upper hand. At the end of February, 1900, General French, at the head of a huge column of horse, swept round the Boers and relieved Kimberley; turning swiftly in pursuit, our men came up with the retreating Boers under Cronje, and compelled some 3000 of them to surrender at Paardeberg. Lord Roberts, never halting, captured the Free State capital Bloemfontein; and Sir Redvers Buller, who had made many attempts to cross the Tugela, at last routed the Boers at Pieters Hill, and relieved Sir George White's garrison. Through the greatest hardships, through Boer shells and assaults, through sickness and famine they had held out gallantly, and the news of the relief of Ladysmith was rejoiced over in every part of the empire. In June Pretoria was taken, and it was hoped that the war would soon be at an end. But though the Boers could not meet our men in the field, they went on fighting an irregular war, surprising small bodies, cutting up the railway line, burning and plundering; and in so large a country as the Republics it was almost impossible to catch these raiders. However, by degrees Lord Kitchener got the upper hand of them, and the Boers surrendered in 1902.

War is always terrible. Even now South Africa has not regained its prosperity altogether, while the cost of the war was enormous. But, in many respects, the war was much less disastrous than men feared it might be. What was dreaded was that Boer and Briton would go on hating each other; that having been enemies in war they would go on being enemies in peace. Fortunately this fear has proved false; although both sides had fought fiercely, they had

learnt to respect each other's bravery; and both sides had been careful to keep it a "white war", and never to let the natives interfere at all. So the quarrel has speedily healed. In less than ten years Britain was able to give back to the rebellious states most of their independence; in 1910 both of them joined with Cape Colony and Natal to form the *Union of South Africa*; and of this Union the first Premier was General Botha, who had been the commander-in-chief of the Boer armies against us, but now became minister under the British Crown; so speedily have the mistrusts and enmities of the war time passed away.

Before the war was ended the beloved Queen Victoria died. She had reigned longer than any other British sovereign. There is no need to describe the love which all her subjects felt for her, or to dwell on the loss to the empire of the sovereign who had for so long watched over its destinies. But we may think what mark later ages will find to distinguish the "age of Victoria" in our history. It has been an age of progress, but still more an age of consolidation. Each institution in the country has been tried, and has come out stronger from the trial. The House of Lords has survived radical cries for its destruction; the House of Commons is still a house of "members", and not mere "delegates"; the Established Church of England stands firm; the colonies hold fast by their mother's side; the Throne, itself at one time threatened as passing out of date, is more popular than it ever was. And first among those to whose prudence this happy result is due must be placed our most wise queen, who showed to the world a model of what a constitutional ruler should be, and who held a unique

Death of Queen Victoria.

position in the world's history. For never, since kingdoms began, has there been a sovereign who was dear to so many millions, and whose death was mourned in sincere grief by so many races in so many lands, united in their loyalty to their queen and to the flag which was the sign of her rule over them.

How valued the Throne is in the empire has been again shown in the reign of King Edward VII. The time is too close to attempt to write the history of it, but what will stand out above all else is the work of the king himself. He it was whose statesmanship brought the Boer war to an end. His tact and wisdom healed the last remains of soreness that existed between us and our neighbour, France, over affairs in Egypt and the Sudan. The two nations have drawn together in friendship, and the *entente cordiale* is one of the best guarantees of peace in Europe. At home his good sense and wise counsel was equally manifest in softening the bitterness of politics, and enforcing the truth that Britain and the empire comes first, in front of the aims of either party. Rightly did he deserve the name of "Edward the Peacemaker", and the death, in 1910, of so kindly and so sagacious a king was felt as a loss not only to the empire but to all the world.

NOTES

p. 34. **Duke Robert of Normandy.** Though the eldest son of the Conqueror, Robert did not succeed to the kingdom of England, but to the dukedom of Normandy. This he sold to his brother William, in order to provide money for a crusade.

p. 34. **cummer,** goodwife, gossip. The corresponding French word *commère* is still current in France, though *cummer* is no longer in use in England.

p. 35. **Casquets,** the rocks off the Channel Islands, notable for the wreck of the *Stella* recently.

p. 37. **Assizes,** 'sittings' or courts held in different central towns at stated times during the year.

p. 42. **done homage,** declared on bended knee that he was the king's 'man', *i.e.* acknowledged the king as his superior, who had certain rights over him.

p. 58. **Scottish Estates,** the ancient parliament of Scotland, consisting of the higher clergy, the barons, and the burgh commissioners.

p. 72. **the rifle,** &c. The barrel of a rifle is grooved on the inside by a long spiral, so that the bullet is given a rotatory motion in the barrel before coming out at the muzzle. Formerly muskets were loaded at the muzzle-end, the charge being rammed down: now the cartridge is put in at the other end, the breech. A magazine rifle has a compartment containing a number of cartridges which can be fired off in very rapid succession by means of special mechanism. The Maxim gun (so called from its inventor, Hiram Maxim) is a piece of machine artillery capable of firing a number of shots in rapid succession.

p. 77. **poll-tax,** *i.e.* a tax levied at so much a head: any particular household would have to pay in proportion to the number of its members.

p. 82. **annates,** the income of a church living for the first year.

p. 107. **Hydra,** a fabulous monster which dwelt in a swamp, and ravaged the surrounding country. It had nine heads. The destruction of this monster was one of the twelve labours set the mythical Greek hero Hercules. As fast as he struck off one head, two grew in its place.

p. 110. **blackmail.** The bands of robbers had allies who extorted money from people as payment for protecting them from being robbed. This was known as *blackmail.*

p. 112. **French galleys,** large boats driven by oars, which were worked by slaves or prisoners chained to them. The life of a galley-slave was one of terrible toil and torture.

p. 148. **conventicles,** meetings for worship held by dissenters, not in consecrated churches, and very often in the open air.

p. 170. **Dundee,** *i.e.* Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, see page 153.

p. 202. **warp.** Weaving is done by passing a thread called the *woof* backwards and forwards across the *warp*, a number of threads stretched longways on a frame.

p. 211. **household suffrage,** *i.e.* the right to vote is enjoyed by everyone who lives for a certain time in the same place and pays the rates.

p. 234. **spheres of influence,** portions of territory in regard to which we have a controlling power, to the exclusion of any other European nation.

p. 234. **trekked,** migrated, travelled. To trek is the Dutch term for travelling from place to place with their wagons, flocks, and herds, household goods, &c.

p. 236. **suzerain,** overlord. The Boers have independence as regards their internal affairs.

p. 242. **cut the painter.** The painter is a rope used for fastening one boat to another. To 'cut the painter' is to set the rearmost boat adrift.

SYNOPSIS.

I.—THE RACES OF BRITAIN.

i. The Early Peoples of Britain.

The earliest races that lived in Britain were savages; their bones and tools are sometimes found in caves. They were followed by

The Celts, of whom there were two main branches:

1. **The Gaels**, from whom are descended the *Irish* and the *Scottish Highlanders*.
2. **The Britons**, from whom the *Welsh* are descended.

ii. The Roman Occupation of Britain, 43 A.D.–410.

1. The Celts of Britain aided their kinsmen in Gaul in their resistance to Rome, and Julius Cæsar crossed the Channel to show the power of Roman arms. Curiosity about an almost unknown land, and desire to share in the wealth of its tin mines, also drew the Romans to Britain.
2. But the Romans determined to annex Britain only in 43 A.D.
3. The northern limits of the Roman Province in Britain were fixed by **Hadrian's Wall** from the Solway to the Tyne, separating the province from the Picts of North Britain.
4. The most serious revolt of the Britons against Roman power was that of **Queen Boadicea**, who destroyed Colchester, St. Albans, and London.
5. **Results of the Roman Occupation:**
   (1) Country divided into provinces, and the country pacified.
   (2) Marshes drained, forests cleared, agriculture improved.
   (3) Copper and tin mines worked.
   (4) Towns built—Eboracum (York), Lindum (Lincoln), Londinium (London), Aquæ Sulis (Bath), &c.
   (5) Numerous public buildings—theatres, baths, temples, and villas for private individuals.
   (6) Great roads constructed for military and commercial purposes.
   (7) Roman dress, manners, and language adopted by upper classes.
   (8) Christianity introduced.
6. Traces of Roman occupation still found in Britain:
   (1) Remains of camps, roads, temples, baths, pottery, &c.
   (2) Latin words in place-names like Doncaster, Winchester, Gloucester (Lat. *castra*, a camp), Lincoln (Lat. *colonia*, a settlement), Portsmouth (Lat. *portus*, a harbour).

iii. The English Invasion of Britain, 449–547.

1. The new invaders, who came from the northern shores of Germany, included:
   (1) **Jutes**, from Jutland or Denmark.
   (2) **Angles**, or English, from Schleswig-Holstein.
   (3) **Saxons**, from the basin of the Lower Elbe.
   The Britons called them all *Saxons*; they are often called *Anglo-Saxons*; but the best common name for all is *English*.
2. The Britons were forced to retire to the high lands of:
   (1) **West Wales** — Cornwall and Devonshire.
   (2) **North Wales**—modern Wales.
   (3) **Strathclyde**, or **Cumbria**—between the Ribble and the Clyde, and west of the Pennine Range.
3. In North Britain there still remained outside the Roman Province:
   (1) The kingdom of the **Picts**, north of the Forth and east of the Grampians.

(2) The kingdom of the **Scots**, immigrants from Ireland in the Highlands and Western Islands.

4. The nature of the **English Conquest**:

(1) The English Conquest—a national migration, establishing a new language and new institutions. Thus very different from the Roman Conquest, which was a military occupation.

(2) Christianity disappeared with the settlement of the heathen newcomers.

(3) English kingdoms were founded as the country was wrested from the Celts.

5. The old English kingdoms consisted socially of:

(1) *A King* (A.S. *cyning*), elected at first by the *folk-moot* or assembly of freemen, and later by the *witan* or assembly of wise men.

(2) *The Eorlas*, or nobles.

(3) *The Ceorls*, or simple freemen, land-owners.

(4) *The Theowas*, or slaves, some of whom were Britons.

6. The system of self-government established by the English involved:

(1) *The town-moot*, presided over by the *town-reeve* or governor, for each township or village.

(2) *The hundred-moot*, presided over by the *hundredes-ealdor* (elder), and composed of members from groups of townships.

(3) *The folk-moot*, or assembly of the whole folk or people.

(4) *The Witan*, or council of wise men, a sort of inner council of the folk-moot, and somewhat resembling our House of Lords.

II.—THE COMING OF CHRISTIANITY.

The chief points to be noted are:

(1) The English settlers were heathens, worshipping Woden and Thor.

(2) The Mission of St. Augustine, sent by Pope Gregory the Great, 597.

(3) Kent was the *first*, and Sussex the *last* kingdom to become Christian.

(4) St. Aidan from Iona, to which Christianity was brought by Columba from Ireland, established a monastery at Lindisfarne.

(5) The Synod of Whitby, held to consider the differences between the Roman and the Celtic Christian churches, decided in favour of the Roman practice.

2. **Results of the Conversion of the English to Christianity and of a united church:**

(1) The Archbishop of Canterbury—Primate of all England—divided the country into dioceses or sees, supervised by bishops; later on, parish boundaries were fixed.

(2) A united church helped to a united nation.

(3) The new religion offered an example not only of union, but of peace and a higher morality.

(4) The beginnings of English learning were due to the church:

i. Caedmon, the first English poet, was a monk in the Abbey at Whitby.

ii. Bede—"the venerable Bede"—our first historian, lived and taught in the monastery at Jarrow-upon-Tyne.

iii. Dunstan, scholar and statesman, became Archbishop of Canterbury.

III.—THE UNION OF ENGLAND.

i. The Rise of Wessex:

1. Three of the old English kingdoms—Northumbria, Mercia, Wessex—became in turn more powerful than all the others.

2. The title of Bretwalda, or overlord, was taken by seven of the kings before Egbert.

3. Egbert, king of Wessex, as overlord, was crowned king of the English.

ii. The Danish Invasions:

The English kingdoms were forced to unite to repel a new enemy—the Danes.

The Danes, also known as Norsemen, Northmen (Normans in France), and Vikings, began to make inroads on England in 787.

3. The Danish Invasions passed through two stages:

(1) The stage of plunder.

(2) The stage of settlement.

They became masters of all England except Wessex.

iii. The Hero-King of Wessex:

1. Alfred was great not only as a king, but as
   (1) **A Warrior:** he helped to win the battle of *Ashdown*; won *Ethandune*; forced the Danes to surrender at *Chippenham*.
   (2) **A Statesman:** he concluded the **Treaty of Wedmore**, giving to the Danes England east of Watling Street; he laid the foundation of England's naval power; he reformed the laws.
   (3) **A Teacher:** he was a famous scholar; established schools; translated books into English; ordered the making of the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*.
2. His sons and grandsons gradually restored Saxon sway over the Dane-law.

IV.—THE FALL OF THE SAXONS.

i. The Golden Age of Saxon England.

1. From 800 to 978 was a period of great kings, and one great statesman —Dunstan.
2. The period of disunion and weakness that followed was marked by:
   (1) The institution of the Danegeld.
   (2) The Massacre of St. Brice's Day.
   (3) The reign of three Danish kings over England, 1017–1042.

ii. The Norman Invasion.

1. The causes that led up to the Norman invasion:
   (1) The favour shown to Normans by Edward the Confessor.
   (2) His making Normans earls, bishops, &c., in England.
   (3) His giving a promise to leave the crown to William, duke of Normandy.
   (4) The oath sworn by Harold when a prisoner in Normandy.
2. Leading events:
   (1) Harold defeated Tostig and the Northmen at *Stamford Bridge*, 1066.
   (2) William landed at Pevensey.
   (3) Harold was defeated and slain at *Senlac*, near *Hastings*, 1066.

V.—NORMANS AND ENGLISH: FEUDALISM.

1. William the Conqueror was King of England:
   (1) By right of conquest.
   (2) By right afterwards of election by the Witan.
2. William's policy was:
   (1) To subdue the English thoroughly.
   (2) To keep the Normans from revolting.
   (3) To establish **Feudalism** in England.
3. The change in the system of land tenure was effected:
   (1) By confiscating the lands of all the English who fought for Harold.
   (2) By making the other English land-owners do homage.
   Thus the king became, in name, owner of all the land.
4. **The Feudal System.**
   (1) The king was sole owner of all land.
   (2) The king granted estates to his nobles and barons—*tenants-in-chief*.
   (3) The tenants-in-chief granted smaller estates to *sub-tenants*.
   (4) Below the free tenants were the *serfs* or *villeins*.
   (5) Each lord had jurisdiction over his own vassals.
   (6) Vassals could be called on to fight for their lords.
5. To maintain strong rule over his kingdom, William
   (1) Gave the barons large estates, but broken up into scattered portions.
   (2) Made all tenants swear obedience at Salisbury, to the king first and to the lords after.
   (3) Caused the Domesday Survey of England to be made.
6. William I.'s dangers came from:
   (1) The English, who rebelled against him.
   (2) The dissatisfied Norman barons, who rebelled also.
   (3) His own sons, who were allied with France against him.

VI.—THE WORST EVILS OF FEUDALISM, &c.

The chief points to be noted in this chapter are:

1. The people feared the barons more than they feared the king.
2. The civil war between the followers of Stephen and Matilda.
3. The cruelties of the barons—"nineteen long winters".

4. The curbing of the powers of the barons by Henry II.
5. The growing power of the church.
6. The king's law and the church's law.
7. Becket's defence of churchmen's privileges.
8. Henry's failure to make the law supreme over churchmen—mainly owing to the murder of Becket, 1170.

VII.—RICHARD THE CRUSADER.

1. Henry II.'s dominions included:
   (1) England and Wales.
   (2) Overlordship of Ireland.
   (3) Overlordship of Scotland in virtue of William the Lion's homage. This was abandoned by his son Richard I.
   (4) The west of France from the English Channel to the Pyrenees. England was now a great Continental Power.
2. **Richard the Crusader.**
   (1) The object of the Crusades was to free the Holy Land from the Saracens.
   (2) The special object of the Third Crusade was to capture Jerusalem from Saladin.
   (3) Richard captured Acre, but was forced to retreat from Jerusalem.
   (4) On his way home Richard was imprisoned in Austria.
   (5) Richard was ransomed, but was killed in a war with France.

VIII.—MAGNA CARTA.

i. Chief points to be noted in John's reign:

1. The loss of his French possessions. (He had been nicknamed "Lackland" in his youth, no territory having been assigned to him by his father.)
2. His quarrel with the pope.
   (1) Dispute arose over the election of Archbishop of Canterbury.
   (2) England was laid under interdict by the pope.
   (3) John was excommunicated.
   (4) Philip II. of France was ordered by the pope to carry out John's deposition.
   (5) John submitted, and the pope's nominee, Stephen Langton, became archbishop.
3. The revolt of the barons.
   (1) The barons, headed by Langton, met to consider grievances.
   (2) Against John were united the barons, the clergy, and the citizens of the towns.
   (3) John was compelled to sign at Runnimede **Magna Carta**, the **Great Charter** [1215], the foundation-stone of English liberties and of the English Constitution.

ii. Magna Carta.

The two main provisions of Magna Carta were:

1. That the king may not take money unless Parliament grants it to him.
2. That no man is to be punished without a trial, and that trial must be before a jury.

NOTE.—This document has been confirmed by Act of Parliament thirty-two times.

iii. The Makings of Parliament.

1. The Great Council of the Norman kings and the early Plantagenets became Parliament in the reign of Henry III.
2. Parliament in its modern form is mainly owing to the influence of Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester.
3. **The Mad Parliament** drew up the **Provisions of Oxford**:
   (1) The power of the king should be transferred to a council of fifteen barons.
   (2) Four knights should represent the freeholders of every county.
   (3) Sheriffs should be elected annually by vote.
   (4) Parliament should meet three times a year.
4. After the *Battle of Lewes* Simon summoned another Parliament [1265], which, like the Scots Parliament, contained:
   (1) Lords.
   (2) County members.
   (3) Borough members.
5. The Parliament of Edward I.—**"The Model Parliament"** [1295]—also included knights of the shire and citizens from the towns.

IX.—THE BEGINNINGS OF SCOTLAND

1. The divisions of Scotland.

The Scots came from Ireland, invaded Caledonia, and expelled the Picts from the south-west. Thus before the Norman Conquest there were:

(1) The land of the Picts, north of the Forth.

(2) The kingdom of the Scots, in Argyleshire.

(3) The kingdom of Strathclyde, from the Clyde to the Ribble.

(4) The English district of Lothian, from the Forth to the Tees.

2. The Union was effected thus:

(1) First, the Picts and the Scots were united under Kenneth MacAlpine in 843.

(2) Next, the kings of Scotland obtained rule over the northern part of Strathclyde.

(3) Lothian, originally part of Northumbria and then a possession of the Danes, was, on the advice of Dunstan, given by King Edgar to Kenneth II.

3. The spread of the English language in Scotland:

(1) Lothian was Saxon in speech and in law.

(2) Malcolm Canmore, in consequence of long residence in England and of his marriage with Margaret, did much to spread English customs and speech in Scotland.

(3) The Celtic reaction was successfully resisted by Malcolm's son, aided by Normans — Bruces, Byssets, Lindsays, Ramsays—who also settled in Scotland.

4. How the kings of England came to regard Scotland as subject to them:

(1) William I. of England invaded Scotland, and compelled Malcolm Canmore to do him homage.

(2) Henry II. forced Malcolm IV. to do homage for the earldom of Huntingdon.

(3) William the Lion, captured by the English near *Alnwick*, was compelled by the Treaty of Falaise (in Normandy) to do homage for Scotland, to hold his crown as a fief of the English throne.

(4) But Richard I. released William I. from his feudal obligation on receipt of 10,000 marks (£6666⅔).

X.—AN EARLY GREAT BRITAIN AND ITS FAILURE.

Edward I. aimed at a united British nation.

1. He conquered Wales, and bestowed on his son the title of Prince of Wales.
2. To unite the crowns of England and Scotland, he proposed a marriage between his son and Margaret, the "Maid of Norway".
3. The Scots consented, and on the death of Margaret asked Edward to decide the question of the succession between a large number of candidates, who agreed to accept his award.
4. Edward revived the claim of lordship over Scotland.
5. The Court held at Norham decided in favour of John Balliol, who accepted the throne as a vassal of England.
6. Balliol, refusing afterwards to obey, was dethroned, and Edward I. treated Scotland as a forfeited fief.

XI.—THE STORY OF SCOTTISH INDEPENDENCE.

Edward I., who had thus as he thought completed the conquest of Scotland, had now, however, to encounter the Scottish people in arms, and the national spirit gathered round

1. Sir William Wallace.

(1) He drove the English out of the Scottish castles.

(2) He defeated the English at *Stirling Bridge*, 1297.

(3) He was made Guardian of Scotland.

(4) He was defeated by Edward I. at *Falkirk*, 1298.

(5) He was betrayed to Sir John Menteith, condemned, and executed in London, 1305.

2. Robert Bruce, grandson of Bruce, the rival of John Balliol.

(1) He killed John Comyn, a rival for the throne, in Greyfriars Church, Dumfries.

(2) He was crowned at Scone, and defeated immediately afterwards at *Methven*.

(3) He took refuge for a winter in Rathlin Isle.

(4) On the death of Edward I.—the Hammer of the Scots—Bruce began to regain the castles—Roxburgh, Edinburgh, Linlithgow—and soon Stirling Castle alone held out.

(5) To relieve Stirling Castle Edward II. fought the *Battle of Bannockburn*—the battle which decided once for all that England could not conquer Scotland [1314].

(6) Robert Bruce was recognized as king of Scotland, and the complete **Independence of Scotland** was acknowledged by the English Parliament, 1328.

8. The chief results of Bruce's reign

(1) He obtained the mastery over all his foes at home and abroad.

(2) He began the **Franco-Scottish Alliance.**

(3) He created a united Scotland, proud of its race and its king.

XII.—THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR, 1338–1453.

1. The causes that led to the Hundred Years' War between England and France:

(1) The help—men, arms, and money—given by France to Scotland.

(2) Edward's wish to get hold of Flanders and Guienne—centres of the wool and wine trades.

(3) Edward's claim to the French crown.

2. **The Great Divisions of the War:**

(1) Period of success in the early part of Edward III.'s reign.

1. *The Battle of Sluys*, 1340.
2. *The Battle of Cressy*, 1346.
3. *The Battle of Poitiers*, 1356.
4. **The Treaty of Bretigny**, by which England obtained the whole S.W. of France.

(2) Period of failure in the latter part of Edward III.'s reign, and in Richard II.'s reign.

(3) Second period of success in the reign of Henry V.

1. *The Battle of Agincourt*, 1415.
2. The marriage of Henry V. to Katharine of France.
3. The crowning of Henry VI. as King of France.
4. Battles of Crevant and Verneuil.

(4) Second period of failure in the reign of Henry VI.

1. The Siege of Orleans.
2. The gradual loss of English possessions in France.
3. All French provinces lost, Calais alone remaining, 1453.

3. Success and failure.

The English victories were due

(1) To the skill of the English archers.

(2) To the fact that the day of knights in armour was past.

(3) In Henry V.'s day, to the disunion of France and the alliance between England and Burgundy.

The English failures were due

(1) To the difficulty of taking French walled towns.

(2) To the French keeping up continual warfare by small parties.

(3) To enthusiasm created by Jeanne Darc.

XIII.—THE BLACK DEATH AND THE SERFS.

The chief points to be noted in connection with the cultivation of the land are:

1. Under Norman rule the land was cultivated by serfs, bound to the land, and obliged to give to their lords so many days' service each week.
2. In course of time serfs came to pay money instead of giving service.
3. The Black Death—1347 to 1350—which destroyed one-third of the people of England, resulted in

(1) A great scarcity of labourers.

(2) A sharp rise in prices.

(3) A corresponding rise in wages.

(4) Consequent hardship to the landowners, who received only the old commuted money payments, but paid the new high wages.

4. Parliament passed the **Statutes of Labourers** to restore the rate of wages current in 1347.
5. The statutes proved a failure: prices rose, and men could not live on the old wages.
6. The land-owners then tried to revert to the labour service—**villenage.**
7. Great discontent resulted in

(1) A peasant revolt headed by Wat Tyler.

(2) Some land-owners leasing their lands to tenants for a rent.

(3) Some land-owners turning from arable-farming to sheep-farming.

(4) Depopulation of the country, and the gradual disappearance of the serfs altogether as a class.

XIV.—WYCLIF AND THE LOLLARDS.

1. Wyclif and the Lollards were Reformers more than a hundred years before the days of Luther.
2. The causes of wide-spread dislike of the Roman Catholic Church:
   (1) A great deal of money was sent to Rome as taxes.
   (2) Foreigners were appointed by the Pope to English livings, deaneries, and canonries.
   (3) A few churchmen held many livings, which they utterly neglected.
   (4) The wealth of these churchmen and their servants formed a contrast to the poverty of the parish priests.
3. Both the Dominican and the Franciscan Friars outlived their first duty—the teaching of the simple message of Christ.
4. "The Great Schism" divided the church into followers of the pope at Avignon and followers of the pope at Rome, and weakened the power of both.
5. John Wyclif
   (1) Was the forerunner of the Reformation—"the morning-star of the Reformation".
   (2) He founded the order of "The Simple Priests".
   (3) He translated the Bible from Latin into English.
   (4) He taught the great Protestant doctrine of individual judgment—the right of all to form their ideas of conduct on their reading of the Bible.
6. The Lollard Movement
   (1) Was a failure, because the Lollards had nothing definite to propose.
   (2) It ceased to be an active force with the burning of Sir John Oldcastle in the reign of Henry V.

XV.—THE WARS OF THE ROSES, 1455–1485.

1. The causes that led to the Wars of the Roses:
   (1) The failure of the French war
   (2) The rivalry of the two families—York and Lancaster.
   (3) The insanity of Henry VI.
   (4) Margaret's determination to fight for her son Edward's rights.
2. The main incidents of the wars:
   (1) Yorkist victories at *St. Albans, Northampton, Mortimer's Cross, Towton, Hedgely Moor, Hexham, Barnet, Tewkesbury.*
   (2) Lancastrian victories at *Wakefield, St. Albans,* and The Battle of Bosworth, 1485.
   (3) Treachery and bloodshed on both sides.
   (4) The power of Warwick the Kingmaker.
3. Results of the Wars of the Roses:
   (1) Changes of dynasty.
   (2) Almost total destruction of the nobility.
   (3) Establishment of a strong independent monarchy relying on the middle classes.

XVI.—THE REFORMATION IN ENGLAND. FIRST PERIOD.

1. Henry VII. strengthened the power of the throne:
   (1) By refusing liveried retainers to the nobles, and by enforcing the laws against *maintenance*, or the mutual support of one another's law-suits.
   (2) By amassing hoards of money.
   (3) By marrying his children to foreign princes and princesses.
      1. His daughter Margaret to James IV. of Scotland.
      2. His son (Arthur and then) Henry to Catharine of Aragon.
2. The Reformation in England was in part Political.
   (1) Henry wished to divorce Catharine of Aragon.
   (2) Pope Clement VII., fearing to offend her nephew, Charles V. of Spain, refused his sanction.
   (3) So Henry wished to break free from the pope, but not to become a Protestant.
   (4) The Parliament of 1529—the Reformation Parliament—
      1. Declared that all appeals to the pope and appointments made by him were illegal.
      2. Ordered that no payments should be made to the pope.

3. Passed the Act of Supremacy, making the king "the only supreme head on earth of the Church of England".

(5) But Henry was not

1. A Roman Catholic, for he defied the pope and beheaded Catholics who did not take the Oath of Supremacy.

2. A Protestant, for he held to all Roman Catholic doctrines.

3. Two notable results of the Reformation in England:

(1) The suppression of the monasteries.

(2) The translation of the Bible—Coverdale's Bible.

XVII.—THE REFORMATION IN ENGLAND. SECOND PERIOD.

1. The Duke of Somerset, regent for Edward VI., went further than Henry VIII. in religious matters.

(1) He abolished the mass and the Catholic form of service.

(2) He issued a new service in English.

(3) He caused images and pictures to be removed from the churches.

2. Northumberland, who was scheming to get the crown for his son's wife, Lady Jane Grey, carried the Reformation still further.

3. But Mary, herself half a Spaniard and married to a Spaniard, restored Roman Catholicism, and persecuted the Protestants—Cranmer, Latimer, Ridley, and others perishing at the stake.

4. Once again, however, England became anti-Roman under Elizabeth, who was acknowledged head of the National Church.

5. But a small party—the Puritans—sought for further reforms, and the abolition of rites and vestments, &c.

XVIII.—THE UNLUCKY HOUSE OF STUART.

1. The long troublous period covered by this chapter—1329 to 1542—was rendered gloomy:

(1) By wars and invasions,

(2) By minorities and quarrels at home,

which impoverished the country and kept her but half civilized.

2. The Wars included:

(1) The defeat of the Scottish regent Mar, at *Dupplin*, in 1332: David I.

(2) The defeat of the Scots by Edward III. at *Halidon Hill*, in 1333: David II.

(3) The defeat of the English at *Otterburn*, 1388: Robert II.

(4) The disastrous defeat of the Scots at *Flodden*, in 1513: James IV.

(5) The rout of the Scots at *Solway Moss*, in 1542: James V.

3. The Quarrels of the kings and nobles at home included:

(1) The starving, by Douglas of Liddesdale, of Ramsay of Dalwolsy in Hermitage Castle.

(2) The starving by Albany of the elder son of Robert III. in Falkland Palace.

(3) The murder of James I. by Sir Robert Graham in Blackfriars Abbey, Perth.

(4) The beheading of the Douglas brothers in Edinburgh Castle.

(5) The stabbing of Douglas by James II. in Stirling Castle.

(6) The hanging of Cochran by Archibald Bell-the-cat at the Bridge of Lauder.

(7) The battle of *Sauchie Burn* and the murder of James III. in 1488.

(8) "Cleanse the Causeway", an affray between the Douglases and the Hamiltons in the High Street of Edinburgh.

(9) The hanging of Johnnie Armstrong, the Border freebooter.

XIX.—THE REFORMATION IN SCOTLAND.

1. The Reformation had begun in Scotland before Mary Stuart was sent to France.

(1) The Scottish Parliament (March, 1543) permitted the study of the Scriptures in English.

(2) As a consequence, men began to think the Roman Catholic Church wrong.

(3) Cardinal Beaton, like his predecessors, tried to stop the Reformation by burning the reformers, among them George Wishart.

(4) Wishart's friends murdered Beaton and seized St. Andrews Castle. But they were forced to surrender,

and one of them, John Knox, was sent to the galleys.

(5) Protestantism was in grave danger when Mary of Guise became regent.

(6) Knox, however, stirred up the Reformers — Glencairn, Argyle, Morton—to lead the Protestant party.

(7) Knox's preaching led to the destruction of:

1. The images, pictures, and stained-glass windows of the churches.
2. The churches and monasteries themselves.

(8) Mary of Guise obtained French aid, but Elizabeth sent help to the Lords of the Congregation, with the result:

1. That by the Treaty of Leith the French troops left Scotland.
2. That Scotland became Protestant.

2. The chief events in the reign of Mary, Queen of Scots, the Catholic queen of a Protestant people:

(1) Her marriage with her cousin, Lord Darnley.

(2) The murder of David Rizzio.

(3) The murder of Darnley.

(4) Her marriage with the Earl of Bothwell.

(5) The defeat of Bothwell at *Carberry Hill*.

(6) Her escape from confinement in Lochleven Castle.

(7) Her defeat at *Langside* and flight to England.

XX.—ROYAL MARRIAGES.

1. The royal marriages of some centuries ago usually determined not only

(1) The foreign policy of a nation, but also

(2) The religion, its institutions, and even its separate existence.

(3) English destinies in the hands of three queens—Mary Tudor, Elizabeth, Mary Stuart.

2. **Important royal marriages.**

(1) The marriage of Margaret Tudor, daughter of Henry VII., led to the union of the crowns of England and Scotland in the person of James I.

(2) The desire of Henry VIII. to annul his marriage with Catharine of Aragon led to the Reformation in England.

(3) The marriage of Mary Tudor to Philip II. of Spain increased the severity of persecution, and might have led to England's falling into the hands of Spain. Fortunately no heir was born.

(4) The marriage of Mary Stuart to Francis II. of France knit closer the bonds of union between France and Scotland, but again there was no heir.

(5) The marriage of Elizabeth Stuart, daughter of James I., to the Elector Palatine led to the accession of the house of Hanover in the person of George I.

XXI.—ELIZABETH AND THE ARMADA.

1. **The Greatness of Elizabeth's reign:**

(1) The English Church was firmly established.

(2) The way was prepared for the union of England and Scotland.

(3) Her reign was marked by important social legislation.

(4) Her reign witnessed the noonday splendour of English literature—it was the age of **Spenser** and **Shakespeare**.

(5) Britain's supremacy at sea was established.

(6) The beginnings of a "Greater Britain" beyond the seas were attempted.

2. **England and Spain:**

(1) The old hatred of France was transferred to Spain.

(2) Elizabeth's reign was one long war with Spain.

(3) The war with Spain was carried on in the Spanish Main by the "Adventurers"—Hawkins, Drake, and other "sea-dogs".

(4) The failure of the Invincible Armada not only freed England from all fear of invasion, but taught her that England's first line of defence must ever be — the **Navy**.

XXII.—THE STUARTS AND THEIR DIFFICULTIES.

i. **King and Parliament:**

The Stuart kings and their Parliaments quarrelled over

(1) Religion at home.

1. James, though brought up as a Presbyterian, wished to be head of the Church of England: his claim was disagreeable to Catholics, Puritans, and Presbyterians.
2. The Gunpowder Plot, followed by severe laws against the Catholics.

(2) Religious matters abroad.

1. James I. wished his son to marry the Infanta of Spain—a Catholic.
2. Charles I. married Henrietta Maria of France—a Catholic.

These two plans were unpopular with the Protestant party.

3. Elizabeth Stuart married the Elector Palatine, leader of the German Protestants.
4. Charles I. tried to help the French Protestants.

These two policies would have been popular, but both ended in failure.

(3) The right of the king to take money and govern without Parliament.

1. The Stuarts held that kings rule by divine right.
2. James I. and Charles I. tried to override Parliament by use of the "**Royal Prerogative**".
3. But the Parliaments were resolved
   1. To prevent the king's raising money on his own authority.
   2. To make his ministers responsible for what was done.
4. Parliament enforced these resolutions
   1. By making James I. promise to give up grants of monopolies.
   2. By giving Charles I. certain taxes for only two years instead of for life.
   3. By forcing Charles I. to accept the **Petition of Right**, the two chief clauses of which were:
      a. That to take taxes except by leave of Parliament was illegal.
      b. That no one should be kept in prison by command of the king without trial.
   4. By impeaching—that is, the Commons accused before the Lords as judges—Bacon, Middlesex, Buckingham, and other royal favourites.

ii. **The Eleven Years' Tyranny.**

1. Charles, advised by Laud, ruled arbitrarily.
2. Wentworth ruled as president of the council of the north, and afterwards as lord-deputy in Ireland.
3. Ship-money was illegally levied.
4. **The Court of Star Chamber** fined those who spoke or wrote against the king.
5. **The High Commission Court** dealt similarly with the Puritans.
6. Archbishop Laud ruled the affairs of the church.
7. Riot in Edinburgh caused by enforcing the use of the liturgy prepared by royal authority for the Church of Scotland.
8. **The National Covenant** bound the Scots to defend the Scottish form of service.
9. The Bishops' War was the first step in the downfall of the king, because the extra expense of a war compelled Charles again to summon Parliament.

XXIII.—WAR BETWEEN KING AND PARLIAMENT.

i. **The Long Parliament** [1640] finally dissolved 1660.

1. Pym and Hampden were bent on reform.
2. Strafford impeached and beheaded.
3. Star Chamber and High Commission Court abolished.
4. Charles tried to arrest Pym, Hampden, and three others—the immediate cause of Civil War.

ii. **The Civil War:**

1. The Royalists successful.
2. The Parliament successful.
   (1) Victory at *Marston Moor*, due to the Scots and Cromwell's Ironsides, 1644.

(2) The New Model army formed by Cromwell, the champion of the Sects, who desired liberty to worship as they pleased and were opposed to the Presbyterians.

(3) Victory at *Naseby*, 1645.

3. Charles in the hands of his enemies.

(1) In Scotland Montrose won a series of victories over the Covenanters.

(2) But he was defeated by Leslie at *Philiphaugh*, 1645.

(3) Charles surrendered to the Scots, who in turn gave him up to Parliament.

(4) The trial and execution of Charles I. was the work of the Independents, headed by Cromwell.

4. Reasons for the failure of Charles I. in the Civil War:

(1) His want of money to carry on a protracted war

(2) The genius of Cromwell and the religious zeal of his Ironsides.

(3) Want of agreement among the king's officers.

(4) The help given to the Parliamentary army by the Scots.

XXIV.—BRITAIN GOVERNED BY AN ARMY.

1. **The Commonwealth** was established in 1649, but Charles I.'s son was recognized as king in

(1) **Ireland**, where

1. Cromwell subdued the country and sacked Drogheda.

2. Cromwell abolished the Irish Parliament—members to be sent to Westminster.

(2) **Scotland**, where

1. Montrose was defeated, and was executed by his enemy, Argyle.

2. Cromwell defeated David Leslie and the Covenanters at *Dunbar*, 1650.

3. Cromwell ravaged Fifeshire.

2. Charles's army was defeated at *Worcester*, and he escaped to France.

3. Monk subdued Scotland and abolished the Scottish Parliament—members to be sent to Westminster.

4. Quarrels between the English Parliament and the Independent Army.

(1) Colonel Pride had already "purged" Parliament of the leading Presbyterian members.

(2) Cromwell dissolved the "Rump", as the body consisting of the fifty to sixty remaining members was called.

(3) Cromwell's own Parliaments—including the "**Barebone's Parliament**"—unsuccessful.

5. Cromwell became a despot, ruling by means of the army and without the sanction of a Parliament for his doings.

6. Abroad, Cromwell made peace with the Dutch, and an alliance with Sweden and Denmark. He also formed an alliance with France, the enemy of Spain.

7. On the death of Cromwell, Monk declared for a free Parliament, which meant

(1) That military despotism was ended.

(2) **The Restoration** of Charles II.

XXV.—FROM RESTORATION TO REVOLUTION.

The second struggle between King and Parliament was marked by:

1. **In Charles II.'s reign:**

(1) Parliament—**the Cavalier Parliament**—at first supporting the king.

(2) **The Clarendon Code**—intended to drive Presbyterianism from Church and State.

(3) The presence of a Dutch fleet in the Thames.

(4) The Cabal Ministry—favourable to toleration and the strengthening of the royal prerogative.

(5) **A Declaration of Indulgence** issued by Charles.

1. It abolished the penal laws against both Catholics and Nonconformists.

2. All Protestants were united against it.

3. Parliament compelled Charles to withdraw the declaration.

(6) **The Test Act**, requiring all persons holding office to take the sacrament according to the rites of the Established Church.

(7) **The Popish Plot** and the Popish Terror.

(8) **The failure of the Exclusion Bill**—a bill to exclude James, Duke of York, from succeeding to the throne.

2. **In James's Reign.**
   (1) The Rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth and the *Battle of Sedgemoor.*
   (2) The Bloody Assizes.
   (3) **The Declaration of Indulgence,** and the suspension of the penal laws against Roman Catholics.
   (4) The Trial of the Seven Bishops for petitioning against having to read the Declaration of Indulgence.
   (5) The birth of a son to the king—known afterwards as "The Old Pretender".
   (6) The landing of William of Orange —nephew and son-in-law of James, —and James's flight to France; **the Revolution,** 1688.
3. The causes of the Revolution:
   (1) James's disregard of the penal laws against Catholics.
   (2) The violation of the Test Act.
   (3) His attacks on the Universities.
   (4) The trial of the Seven Bishops.

XXVI.—WILLIAM III. IN BRITAIN.

1. Opposition to William and Mary arose
   (1) **In Scotland:**
      1. Viscount Dundee defeated General Mackay at *Killiecrankie.*
      2. The Massacre of Glencoe.
      3. The other Highland clans were Jacobites because the Campbells supported William.
   (2) **In Ireland:**
      1. The Irish fought for James because he was a Catholic.
      2. The Protestants were besieged in *Londonderry* and *Enniskillen.*
      3. William defeated James in the *Battle of the Boyne.*
      4. **The Treaty of Limerick** closed the war.
2. The Revolution settled the supremacy of Parliament for ever, and brought in government by party
3. **The Bill of Rights** declared
   (1) That it was illegal for the king to set aside the laws, to levy money, or to keep a standing army without consent of Parliament.
   (2) That Parliament should be freely elected, and should have freedom of debate.
   (3) That no Catholic could be king.

XXVII.—A SECOND HUNDRED YEARS' WAR WITH FRANCE.

1. The long war with France was really a struggle for possession of the New World and India.
2. William was at war with France:
   (1) Because France was the leader of Catholicism.
   (2) Because France was threatening all Europe.
   (3) Because France was specially dangerous to Holland.
   (4) Because it seemed as if France and Spain were to be united under the grandson of Louis.
3. The English people were at war with France because Louis XIV. supported James II.
4. The war in William's reign was neither very popular nor very successful, and ended with the **Peace of Ryswick.**
5. The war in Anne's reign was popular and brilliantly successful.
   (1) Marlborough in 1704 won the *Battle of Blenheim*—one of the great decisive battles in the world's history; it saved Austria from destruction.
   (2) He also won the battles—*Ramillies, Oudenarde,* and *Malplaquet* in the Low Countries.
   (3) The war was closed by the **Treaty of Utrecht,** which gave to Britain:
      1. Two ports in the Mediterranean —Gibraltar and Minorca.
      2. Two colonies in the New World —Nova Scotia and St. Kitt's.
      3. The sole right of shipping slaves to the Spanish colonies.

XXVIII.—THE UNION OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

1. Obstacles to the **Union of the Parliaments:**
   (1) The religious and commercial jealousies of the two countries.
   (2) Fears of the Scots for the independence of their country.
   (3) The strength of the Jacobite party in Scotland.
   (4) Resentment at the failure of the **Darien Scheme,** ruined by:
      1. The unhealthy climate.
      2. The jealousy of both the English and the Spanish.

(5) This discontent led the Scots to pass the **Act of Security** to prevent the succession as in England, unless Scottish trade and religion were fully recognized.

(6) The English retaliated and threatened

1. To treat the Scots as foreigners.
2. To admit no Scottish goods into England.
3. To fortify Carlisle, Newcastle, Berwick, and Hull.

2. **Act of Union of England and Scotland.**

This Act included twenty-five Articles.

(1) Establishing one Parliament for the two countries.

(2) Giving every security to the Scottish law and church.

(3) Opening up English trade to the Scots.

XXIX.—THE 'FIFTEEN AND THE 'FORTY-FIVE.

I. The 'Fifteen.

1. The object of this rising was to overthrow the Hanoverian dynasty, and to place the Old Pretender on the throne.
2. The chief events connected with the 'Fifteen:
   (1) Risings in Scotland under the Earl of Mar and Lord Kenmure.
   (2) Rising in Northumberland under Mr. Foster and Lord Derwentwater.
   (3) The English Jacobites surrendered at *Preston*.
   (4) A drawn battle between Mar and Argyle was fought at *Sheriffmuir*.
3. Results of the rising:
   (1) Derwentwater and Kenmure were executed.
   (2) Severe laws against the Catholics were re-enacted.
   (3) **The Septennial Act** was passed.

II. The 'Forty-five:

1. The immediate cause of the 'Forty-five was the defeat of the British troops at *Fontenoy*.
2. The chief events connected with the 'Forty-five:
   (1) Charles's march upon Perth and Edinburgh.
   (2) The rout of Cope's army at *Prestonpans*.
   (3) Charles's march into England as far as Derby.
   (4) Charles's victory at *Falkirk*.
   (5) The total defeat of the Highlanders at *Culloden*.
   (6) Charles's romantic wanderings and escape to France.
3. Results of the 'Forty-five:
   (1) Many Jacobites were executed or transported.
   (2) The Stuart cause was utterly and hopelessly lost.
   (3) Acts were passed to prevent further trouble in the Highlands:
      1. **The Disarming Act.**
      2. An Act to put an end to the authority of the chiefs over their clans.
      3. An Act forbidding the wearing of tartan or the Highland garb

XXX.—GREATER BRITAIN.

I. Pitt and the Empire:

1. The hostility to France.
   (1) Britain took part in three great wars in the middle of the eighteenth century. In each her chief antagonist was France. General causes of these wars are twofold:
      1. Attempts of France to extend her power in Europe.
      2. Rivalry between Britain and France (with her ally Spain) on colonial questions.
   (2) It was therefore British policy to take part with all France's enemies on the Continent in order to prevent her putting forth her full power in colonial struggles.
   (3) The possession of Hanover made our Hanoverian kings further inclined to involve Britain in German affairs.
2. **The Three Great Wars:**
   (1) The War of the Austrian Succession, 1739–1748.
      1. Immediate cause—France and Spain repudiated the Pragmatic Sanction and Frederick the Great attacked Silesia.
      2. Combatants—Britain, Austria, and Holland against France, Spain, Prussia, Bavaria.
      3. Events—The French defeated at *Dettingen*; the British defeated at *Fontenoy*.
      4. War closed temporarily by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

(2) The Seven Years' War, 1756–63.

1. Causes of the War — French alarm at the power of Prussia; English anxiety about Hanover; English and French colonial rivalry.

2. In Europe Frederick of Prussia was hard pressed by Austria, France, and Russia in alliance against him. He was more than once nearly driven from his throne, but managed in the end to keep Silesia. He won great battles at Rossbach and Leuthen, while the British troops sent by Pitt were victorious at Minden.

3. Britain reaped the fruit of the war by:

(1) Expelling the French from Canada.

(2) Overcoming them in India.

(3) The American War: see below.

ii. Our American Colonies.

1. Early Settlements in America.

(1) The New England States were settled by Puritans—"The Pilgrim Fathers".

(2) Maryland was founded by the Roman Catholics.

(3) Pennsylvania was founded by the Quakers.

(4) The coast lands from the Atlantic to the Alleghany Mts. were held by the British.

(5) The French held Canada.

(6) They also held the lower Mississippi valley.

(7) The French tried to prevent British expansion westward by erecting a chain of forts from Canada to Louisiana.

(8) Fighting at *Fort Duquesne*—afterwards Pittsburg,—on the Ohio, led to open war.

(9) Pitt sent Wolfe to capture *Quebec*.

(10) By The Treaty of Paris, 1763, all Canada fell into the hand of the British.

2. Causes leading to the American War.

(1) Trade rivalry produced colonial discontent.

(2) The Mercantile System sacrificed all interests to those of the British merchants and manufacturers.

(3) The Stamp Act was passed to tax the colonists directly.

(4) Destruction of the taxed tea cargoes in Boston Harbour.

3. The American War.

(1) Combatants — Britain against the colonists; but soon France, Spain, and Holland join the colonists against us.

(2) Declaration of American Independence, 1776.

(3) Two great British defeats: the capture of Burgoyne at Saratoga; the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown. The latter was the work of the French fleet, which cut off Cornwallis's supplies by sea.

(4) American Independence acknowledged by Treaty of Versailles, 1783.

iii. The Winning of India:

1. Our Empire in India was founded by private enterprise—by the East India Company.

2. Trading stations — factories — were established in India by English, French, and Dutch traders.

3. Robert Clive turned the tables on Dupleix, the French governor, who designed to drive the English from India.

(1) He captured Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic.

(2) He defeated Surajah Dowlah of the Black Hole infamy at *Plassey*, and became governor of Bengal.

4. Clive's policy:

(1) He prevented the Company's servants from taking bribes.

(2) He introduced a purer system of justice.

(3) He inaugurated a new policy—that of interfering with native princes in order to acquire territory.

(4) The victory of Wandewash destroyed the French power in India.

5. Warren Hastings was the first Governor-General of India, and formed the design of bringing all India under British rule.

(1) He so protected the Company's territories and procured money for the Court of Directors in England.

(2) He made war on the Mahrattas.

(3) He checked the advances of Hyder Ali in the Carnatic.

(4) He extended British influence in native Indian courts.

(5) Warren Hastings was impeached, on his return to England, for cruelty and oppression, but was acquitted.

6. General Result of the administration of Clive and Hastings—

The East India Company was made the first power in India, and the way was paved for the conquests which so speedily followed.

iv. British Power at Sea, a mixture of success and failure.

1. During the three great eighteenth-century wars:

(1) Great exploits.

1. Anson plundered the Spanish possessions in the Pacific.
2. Hawke defeated the French in *Quiberon Bay*.
3. The English took Manila and Havannah from the Spaniards.

(2) Failures.

1. Admiral Byng failed to relieve Minorca, and was shot.
2. The French fleet improved, while ours remained stationary.
3. The French seized many of our West Indian islands.
4. The French and Spanish fleets kept up a three years' siege of Gibraltar.

(3) The turning-point is Rodney's victory over De Grasse off Dominica. The new manœuvre of *breaking the line* made sea-fights decisive.

2 During this century also Captain Cook took possession of Australia and New Zealand in the name of King George—an event of immense importance, though little noted at the time.

XXXI.—THE STRUGGLE AGAINST NAPOLEON.

i. General characteristics of the Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars:

1. They were altogether the greatest of Britain's wars.
2. More ships and more men were employed than in any other British war.
3. Vast sums of money were spent on fleets and armies.
4. Enormous sums were also given to the allies of Britain.
5. The National Debt went up by leaps and bounds to £850,000,000.

ii. The leading events may be grouped into five periods.

1. The events of the years 1792–1798:

(1) The French Revolution; French victories over Prussia and Austria; French alliance with Spain and Holland.

(2) Admiral Jervis shattered the French and Spanish fleets off *Cape St. Vincent*, 1797.

(3) The Mutiny of the Navy at Spithead and the Nore.

(4) Admiral Duncan defeated the Dutch at *Camperdown*, 1797.

(5) Nelson broke the power of the French in the Mediterranean in the *Battle of the Nile*, 1798.

2. The events of 1800–1808:

(1) Nelson destroyed the Danish fleet at Copenhagen.

(2) Napoleon massed an army of invasion at Boulogne.

(3) Nelson destroyed the combined fleets of France and Spain off Cape Trafalgar.

(4) Napoleon defeats the Austrians at *Austerlitz* and the Prussians at *Jena*.

(5) He issues the Berlin and Milan decrees, and Britain replies with Orders in Council.

3. The Peninsular War, 1808–1813.

(1) The Spaniards rose against the French, and begged help from Britain.

(2) Sir John Moore defeated the French, but was killed in action at *Corunna*.

(3) Wellington constructed the lines at Torres Vedras, from which no enemy could dislodge him.

(4) Wellington stormed *Ciudad Rodrigo* and *Badajos*, and defeated the French at *Talavera*, *Salamanca*, *Vittoria*, and finally at *Toulouse*.

4. Napoleon's expedition to Russia, 1812.

(1) The Grand Army marched into the heart of Russia.

(2) The Russians deserted and set fire to Moscow.

(3) The retreat from Moscow.

(4) The allies — Russia, Austria, Prussia—forced Napoleon to abdicate.

5. The Hundred Days.

(1) Napoleon, having escaped from Elba in 1815, was declared by the allies to be "the common enemy of the world".

(2) Wellington was sent with an army to Belgium.

(3) The Prussians sent to his aid an army under Blücher.

(4) Napoleon defeated Blücher at Ligny.

(5) Wellington crushed Napoleon and the French at *Waterloo.*

iii. Results of Trafalgar and Waterloo.

1. England was rendered secure from invasion.
2. The supremacy of England at sea was re-established.
3. Great wealth was drawn from a commerce that became world-wide.
4. An unrivalled colonial empire — Greater Britain—sprang up.

XXXII.—THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.

1. At the beginning of the eighteenth century

(1.) Britain was chiefly an agricultural country.

(2) The iron trade was in a languishing condition.

(3) The linen manufacture, centred chiefly in Scotland and Ireland, was small.

(4) No true cotton fabrics could be manufactured.

(5) Only the woollen trade was fairly prosperous.

2. Inventions and Improvements.

(1) The gigantic industries of Lancashire and Cheshire were due to

1. Kay's flying shuttle.
2. Hargreaves' spinning-jenny.
3. Arkwright's water-frame.
4. Crompton's mule.
5. Cartwright's power-loom.
6. Tennant's bleaching by chlorine.

(2) The use of coal in smelting and Cort's invention of the puddling process fostered the iron industry.

(3) Wedgwood developed the potteries of Staffordshire.

(4) Roads were made, and Brindley intersected the country by canals.

(5) James Watt's improvements on the steam-engine led to rapid advances in all industries.

3. Results of this Era of Machinery:

(1) Great industries grew up wherever coal was to be found.

(2) Factory villages became great factory towns—Glasgow, Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds, Nottingham, &c.

(3) The "by-industries" decayed.

(4) Great hardships to the artisan class resulted from the factory system — remedied, however, by the Factory Acts.

(5) It shifted the industrial centres from the south and east of England to the north and west.

(6) Britain became "the workshop of the world".

XXXIII.—THE DEVELOPMENTS OF PARLIAMENT.

i. The Supremacy of Parliament.

1. Though the Revolution had settled the supremacy of Parliament, the Crown could still influence and rule Parliament

(1) By giving pensions and honours to members and their friends.

(2) By promotions in the army and navy.

2. Men saw that Parliament did not represent the people, and that the power of the Crown ought to be diminished.

(1) Many of the great new industrial centres—Birmingham, Leeds, Manchester—had no members.

(2) Small boroughs returned two.

(3) Even large towns and counties had few electors (Edinburgh had a member to itself, but Glasgow had only a fourth share in a member).

(4) "Pocket Boroughs" were numerous.

(5) Bribery and corrupt practices were almost universal.

ii. Reform.

1. The French Revolution delayed Reform in England for nearly forty years.
2. The Reform Bill of 1831 passed the Commons, but was thrown out by the Lords.
3. Riots, almost approaching revolution, broke out all over England.
4. A threat to create new Peers made the Lords give way, and

The First Reform Bill was passed in 1832.

(1) Members were taken from rotten boroughs.

(2) Members were given to large towns and counties.

(3) The Franchise was extended—so as to include shopkeepers, the richer artisans, farmers, &c.

5. The franchise has been twice lowered since then—in 1867 and in 1884,—so that Britain is now in reality a democratic country.

XXXIV.—FREE-TRADE.

The Epoch of Reform.

1. The Reform Bill was only the first of many measures of a similar kind.
2. It was followed by the Factory Acts, dealing with the ages, hours, &c., of the workers.
3. Among other reforms of the time were:
   (1) Reform in the Criminal Law.
   (2) Reform in the Poor-law.
   (3) The Catholic Emancipation Act (1829).
   (4) The abolition of the slave-trade (1807) and slavery (1834).
   (5) The introduction of the penny-postage system (1840).
4. The abolition of the Corn-laws and the alteration of the Navigation Acts led to the establishment of free-trade, thus making
5. **Britain the First Free-trading Country in the World.**

XXXV.—THE CRIMEAN WAR AND THE INDIAN MUTINY.

i. The Crimean War.

1. Causes:
   (1) The desire of Russia to become mistress of Constantinople.
   (2) The Czar demanded the right of protecting the Christians of Turkey.
   (3) Jealousy of the growing power and influence of Russia.
   (4) Napoleon III.'s desire for military glory.
2. Leading Events in the Crimean War:
   (1) Victory of the British and French at *Alma*.
   (2) Bombardment of *Sebastopol*.
   (3) Charge of the Light Brigade at *Balaclava*.
   (4) The Battle of *Inkerman*—"the soldiers' battle".
   (5) The fall of Sebastopol.
3. Results:
   (1) Many reforms were carried out at the War Office.
   (2) Florence Nightingale's example proved a new departure in army nursing.
   (3) Newspaper correspondents first began to play an important part in war.
   (4) **The Treaty of Paris.**
      1. Russia gave up her claim to interfere with Turkey.
      2. The Black Sea was made neutral.
      3. The navigation of the Danube was made free.
      4. Roumania and Servia obtained freedom.

ii. The Indian Mutiny.

1. Causes:
   (1) Discontent with the British policy of interfering with native habits, customs, and beliefs.
   (2) The exclusion of natives from the higher posts in the civil service.
   (3) The dissatisfaction of the many dethroned princes.
   (4) The withdrawing of the ablest men from the army for civil posts, and the weakening of the army by the Persian expedition.
   (5) The issue of cartridges supposed to be greased with the fat of cows and pigs was the immediate cause of the outbreak.
   (6) It was thought by many that the British power was declining.
2. Leading Events of the Mutiny:
   (1) Outbreaks at *Meerut*, *Delhi*, *Lucknow*, and *Cawnpore*, 1857.
   (2) Massacre at *Cawnpore*.
   (3) Capture of Delhi.
   (4) Relief of *Lucknow* by Havelock, Outram, and Campbell.
3. Results:
   (1) The whole Indian administration was placed under the control of the Crown.
   (2) **The East India Company** was dissolved, and the Governor-General became Viceroy.
   (3) The native army was considerably reduced.

XXXVI.—PALMERSTON; DISRAELI; GLADSTONE.

After Peel, whose masterful skill carried the country through the difficulties of Catholic Emancipation and the Abolition of the Corn-laws.

Britain has had three eminent statesmen in the House of Commons.

1. **Lord Palmerston.**
   (1) He brought the Crimean War to a successful end.

(2) He piloted the country safely through all the dangers of the Indian Mutiny.

(3) Even when wrong—as in the case of one of the Chinese wars—he was strongly supported by the country.

2. **Gladstone.**

(1) He was strong in finance, and was Chancellor of the Exchequer under Palmerston.

(2) Gladstone's policy was—"Peace, Retrenchment, and Reform".

(3) He passed the **Education Act** (Mr. Forster's).

(4) He passed the **Ballot Act.**

(5) He abolished the system of Army Purchase.

(6) He disestablished the Irish Protestant Church.

(7) He carried an **Irish Land Act.**

(8) He wrecked the old Liberal party by his action in connection with **Home Rule for Ireland.**

3. **Disraeli.**

(1) At first leader of the Protectionists.

(2) Soon set to work to "educate his party" to rival the Liberals in granting reforms, *e.g.* the Reform Bill of 1867.

(3) Was **Imperialist in policy:** did not shrink from war: was ready to extend the empire.

(4) His firmness in dealing with Russia led to good results in the Treaty of Berlin.

XXXVII.—BRITISH POWER IN AFRICA.

1. **The Expansion of Europe.**

(1) Britain, Germany, France, Italy, have all extended their spheres of influence or occupation in Africa.

(2) Russia has steadily advanced eastward and southward in Asia.

(3) These same European powers are all seeking ports, stations, privileges, and spheres of influence in China.

NOTE.—Even the United States of America have taken to colonial expansion—Cuba and the Philippines.

2. **The Scramble for Africa.**

(1) The English obtained Cape Colony from the Dutch in 1815.

(2) The discovery of diamonds at Kimberley led to the annexation of Griqualand.

(3) Under Disraeli, Zululand and the Transvaal—a Boer state—were annexed.

(4) Freedom, with certain restrictions, was restored to the Boers of the Transvaal.

(5) The discovery of gold on the Rand and the influx of thousands of Britons—Uitlanders—into the Transvaal, where they were refused the most elementary rights, was followed by the Jameson Raid.

(6) A Petition of the Uitlanders to the Queen led to the British government interfering on their behalf.

(7) South African War.

1. 1899, war declared. Ladysmith, Kimberley, and Mafeking besieged. Sir Redvers Buller's operations in Natal. "The Black Week."

2. Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener arrive with reinforcements, Jan., 1900; enter Bloemfontein in March, and Pretoria in June. Relief of besieged towns.

3. Last stage, guerrilla war under Lord Kitchener. Peace of Vereeniging, June, 1902.

(8) Union of South Africa inaugurated, 1910.

(9) Mr. Cecil Rhodes extended British rule over Rhodesia—1. Southern Rhodesia (capital Salisbury), consisting of (a) Mashonaland; (b) Matabeleland (capital Buluwayo). 2. Northern Rhodesia, lying north of the Zambesi, and extending to southern end of L. Tanganyika.

(10) British rule has also been established in

1. British Central Africa,

2. West Africa on the Niger,

3. British East Africa up to Victoria Nyanza and the borders of the Sudan.

3. **Egypt.**

(1) British occupation of Egypt.

1. The purchase of Suez Canal shares and the importance of the canal itself gave Britain a powerful interest in the affairs of Egypt.

2. A great deal of English money had been lent to the Egyptian government.

3. France and Britain set up **"The Dual Control"** in Egypt.

4. In 1882 Arabi, an Egyptian soldier, rebelled, and seized Alexandria.

5. France withdrew from Egypt, and Britain alone bombarded Alexandria, and defeated Arabi at *Tel-el-Kebir* in 1882.

(2) Results of British occupation of Egypt:

1. Order has been restored.
2. Good government has been set up.
3. Egypt has been trained to self-government.
4. Agriculture has been improved and irrigation extended.
5. The Egyptian army has been practically re-created.

4. The Sudan.

(1) The Mahdi and his Dervish followers defeated the Egyptian troops.

(2) Hicks Pasha and an Egyptian force were destroyed by the Dervishes.

(3) General Gordon was besieged in *Khartoum*.

(4) Khartoum fell, and Gordon was murdered two days before the arrival of a relief expedition.

(5) The Dervishes next threatened Egypt.

(6) The Mahdi died, and was succeeded by the Khalifa.

(7) Sirdar Kitchener broke the power of the Dervishes at *Omdurman*, and completed the **Re-conquest of the Sudan**.

XXXVIII.—THE NEW COLONIAL SYSTEM.

1. The new Colonial system consists mainly in giving the colonies self-government, while Britain still remains "home" and "the old country".

2. The plan of responsible government has proved successful in

(1) The Dominion of Canada.

(2) The Australian Colonies.

(3) New Zealand.

(4) South Africa.

3. Imperial Federation.

This is a question of the future. It means the uniting in one great imperial federation, possessing one great Imperial Parliament, of Britain and all her Colonies.

4. The British Colonial Spirit.

The Anglo-Saxon race is the great colonizing race of the world. It possesses in greater degree than any other nation

(1) The spirit of daring and adventure.

(2) Doggedness to bear want and overcome difficulty.

(3) The masterful spirit that subdues Eastern races.

(4) A strong sense of right and justice.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF

GREAT EVENTS IN ENGLISH AND SCOTTISH HISTORY.

I.—THE ROMAN PERIOD (43–410).

B.C.

55. First Landing of Julius Cæsar in Britain.

54. Second Landing of Julius Cæsar in Britain.

A.D.

43. Re-invasion by the Romans, and Conquest of South Britain.

84. Agricola, Roman Governor of Britain, defeated the Caledonians in the battle of *Mons Grampius*.

120. Hadrian's Wall—stone wall and earthen rampart—built from the Solway Firth to the mouth of the Tyne.

410. Withdrawal of the Romans from Britain; Rome captured by the Goths; Fall of the Western Roman Empire (477 A.D.).

II.—THE OLD ENGLISH PERIOD (449–1066).

449. English Conquest of South Britain began with the landing of the Jutes under Hengist and Horsa in Kent.

597. Introduction of Christianity into Kent by Augustine, sent from Rome by Pope Gregory.

(*d.* 597). St. Columba, abbot of Iona, founded Celtic Christian Church in northern Britain.

(*d.* 651). St. Aidan from Scotland found Christian Church in Northumbria.

664. Synod of Whitby decided in favour of the Roman ritual and time for keeping Easter.

787. First Invasion of the Northmen.

827. Egbert, King of the West Saxons, became king of the English south of the Thames, and overlord of all the English as far as the Firth of Forth.

843. Union of the Picts and Scots under Kenneth MacAlpine.

878. Northmen, under Guthrum, invaded Wessex; Alfred retreated to Athelney; *Battle of Ethandun*; Treaty of Wedmore.

945. Edmund conquered Cumberland, which he gave to Malcolm, King of Scots, on military tenure.

966. Edgar divided Northumbria, and granted Lothian to Kenneth, King of Scots, to be held by him as vassal.

1002. Massacre of the Danes on St. Brice's Day.

1017. Canute, the Dane, chosen king of all England.

1042. English line of kings restored in the person of Edward the Confessor.

1066. The Norman Conquest. Harold defeated Tostig and the Northmen at *Stamford Bridge*. *Battle of Senlac or Hastings*. Harold killed. William accepted as king.

III.—THE NORMAN PERIOD (1066–1154).

1066. The Norman Conquest.

1078. Rebellion of William's son.

1086. Domesday Book—a general survey of England—produced; Great Court held at Salisbury.

1100. Henry I. married Matilda, daughter of Malcolm of Scotland.

1138. David of Scotland defeated in the *Battle of the Standard*.

IV.—THE PLANTAGENET PERIOD (1154–1399).

A.D.

1157. Malcolm, King of Scots, did homage to Henry II. for the earldom of Huntingdon.

1159. **Scutage**—a payment in money instead of military service—first regularly instituted.

1162. Thomas Becket elected Archbishop of Canterbury.

1164. **The Constitutions of Clarendon.**

1170. Becket murdered at Canterbury.

1171. Henry visited Ireland; his supremacy acknowledged by the chiefs.

1174. William the Lion captured near *Alnwick*; set free by **Treaty of Falaise** on condition of doing homage for Scotland.

1191. *Acre*, in Palestine, captured by Richard I.

1208. England placed under an **Interdict by the Pope.**

1215. **The Great Charter** signed by King John at Runnimede.

1257 Simon de Montfort assumed the leadership of the opposition to Henry III.

1258. The Mad Parliament drew up the **Provisions of Oxford.**

1264. The barons victorious in the *Battle of Lewes.*

1265. Representatives **from boroughs and cities** summoned for the first time to Parliament; *Battle of Evesham.*

1282. **The Conquest of Wales.**

1291. Meeting at Norham with the Scots; Edward's claim to decide the succession acknowledged.

1295. First complete Parliament—"**the Model Parliament**"—of the Three Estates.

1296. Scots defeated in the *Battle of Dunbar*; Balliol dethroned.

1297. Wallace victorious in the *Battle of Stirling Bridge* or *Cambuskenneth.*

1298. Wallace defeated at *Falkirk.*

1304. Stirling Castle taken by the English; conquest of Scotland completed.

1305. Wallace captured and executed at London.

1306. Robert Bruce crowned at Scone; defeated at *Methven.*

1314. *Battle of Bannockburn*; establishment of Scottish independence.

1328. **The Independence of Scotland** recognized by Edward III.

A.D.

1333. Scots defeated at *Halidon Hill*; Balliol reinstated.

1338. Beginning of the Hundred Years' War with France.

1346. *Battle of Cressy*; David II. defeated at *Nevill's Cross* and taken prisoner.

1349. The Black Death; **the Statute of Labourers.**

1356. *Battle of Poitiers.*

1381. Rising of the Commons under Wat Tyler.

1388. *The Raid of Otterburn.*

1393. **The Statute of Praemunire.**

V.—THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER (1399–1461).

1402. Scots defeated at *Homildon Hill.*

1403. Conspiracy of the Percies; *Battle of Shrewsbury*; Harry Percy ("Hotspur") killed.

1415. *Battle of Agincourt.*

1420. **Treaty of Troyes** signed.

1421. English defeated at *Beaugé* by French, aided by a body of Scots.

1429. *The Siege of Orleans* raised by Jeanne Darc.

1450. Rebellion headed by Jack Cade.

1453. Final loss of France, Calais alone remaining.

1455. Beginning of the **Wars of the Roses.**

VI.—THE HOUSE OF YORK (1461–1485).

1474. Printing introduced in England by William Caxton.

1485. Henry of Richmond invaded England. *Battle of Bosworth.* End of the Wars of the Roses.

VII.—THE TUDOR PERIOD (1485–1603).

1487. Lambert Simnel proclaimed king as Edward VI.

1492. Perkin Warbeck, another impostor, landed in Ireland.

1502. Margaret Tudor married James IV. of Scotland.

1513. *Battle of Flodden.*

1520. Henry VIII. met King Francis on "The Field of the Cloth of Gold".

1529. Fall of Wolsey.

1532. **Beginning of the Reformation** in England.

A.D.
1535. Henry VIII. took the title of "Supreme Head of the Church in England".
1539. All monasteries suppressed.
1541. Henry VIII. declared King of Ireland.
1542. Scots routed at *Solway Moss.*
1547. Scots defeated at the *Battle of Pinkie.*
1549. The first Prayer-book of Edward VI. approved.
1554. Lady Jane Grey executed.
1555. The Marian persecution began
1558. *Calais* captured by the French.
1559. **Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity passed.**
1563. **The Thirty-nine Articles** drawn up and signed.
1587. Execution of Mary Queen of Scots.
1588. Defeat of the *Spanish Armada*

VIII.—THE STUART PERIOD (1603–1714).

1604. **The Hampton Court Conference.**
1605. The Gunpowder Plot discovered.
1618. Execution of Sir Walter Raleigh.
1621. Bacon, Lord Chancellor, impeached.
1628. Charles I. assented to the **Petition of Right.**
1637. John Hampden refused to pay ship-money.
1640. The Long Parliament met.
1644. *Battle of Marston Moor.*
1645. *Battle of Naseby*; Montrose defeated at *Philiphaugh.*
1649. Charles I. executed; *Drogheda* sacked.
1650. Scots defeated at *Battle of Dunbar.*
1651. Charles defeated at the *Battle of Worcester.*
1653. Dutch Naval War.
1660. **The Restoration.**
1665. The Great Plague of London.
1666. The Great Fire of London.
1667. The Cabal Ministry.
1672. **The Declaration of Indulgence.**
1673. **Test Act passed.**
1679. **Habeas Corpus Act passed.**
1680. **The Exclusion Bill** rejected by the Lords.
1685. Insurrection of Monmouth; *Battle of Sedgemoor*; the Bloody Assizes.

A.D.
1688. The Seven Bishops tried and acquitted.
Revolution: William Prince of Orange invited to invade England; James deposed.
1689. **The Declaration of Right.**
1690. *Battle of the Boyne.*
1692. Massacre of *Glencoe*; Naval battle off *La Hogue.*
1693. Origin of the National Debt.
1694. The Bank of England established.
1697. **The Peace of Ryswick.**
1701. **The Act of Settlement** passed.
1702. War of the Spanish Succession began.
1704. *Battle of Blenheim*; Capture of Gibraltar; **Scottish Act of Security.**
1706. *Battle of Ramillies.*
1707. **Act of Union between England and Scotland.**
1708. *Battle of Oudenarde.*
1709. *Battle of Malplaquet.*
1713. **The Treaty of Utrecht.**

IX.—THE HOUSE OF HANOVER (1714–1899.)

1715. Defeat of the Jacobites at *Preston*; *Sheriffmuir*; **The Riot Act.**
1716. **The Septennial Parliament Bill** passed.
1720. The South Sea Company purchased from Government part of the national debt.
1736. The Porteous Riots in Edinburgh.
1743. George II. defeated the French at *Dettingen* — the last time an English sovereign personally led troops to battle.
1745. The English defeated by the French at *Fontenoy.*
Charles Edward Stuart defeated Cope at *Prestonpans.*
1746. Charles defeated Hawley at *Falkirk.*
Charles was finally defeated at *Culloden.*
1748. **Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.**
1756. The French captured *Minorca*: The Black Hole of Calcutta.
1759. *The Capture of Quebec* by Wolfe.
1763. **The Treaty of Paris**—End of the Seven Years' War.
1765. **The Stamp Act** for America passed.
1776. American Independence declared.
1780. Spanish fleet defeated by Rodney off *Cape St. Vincent.*

A.D.
1781. Lord Cornwallis surrendered at *Yorktown*.
1782. England acknowledged the Independence of the United States.
1789. **The French Revolution.**
1795. The Cape of Good Hope captured from the Dutch.
1797. Naval victories off *St. Vincent* and *Camperdown*.
1798. *The Battle of the Nile.*
1800. **The Act for the Union of Great Britain and Ireland** passed.
1801. Defeat of the French at *Alexandria*, and of the Danish fleet at *Copenhagen*.
1805. The French and Spanish fleets defeated off *Trafalgar*.
1809. Defeat of the French at *Ccrunna*; Sir John Moore killed.
1812. The storming of *Badajos*; the victory of *Salamanca*; the burning of Moscow.
1813. *The Battle of Vittoria.*
1814. Wellington defeated Soult at *Toulouse*; abdication of Napoleon.
1815. Complete defeat of Napoleon at *Waterloo*.
1829. **The Catholic Emancipation Bill** passed.
1832. **The Reform Bill** passed.
1833. **An Act for the Emancipation of Slaves** passed.
1837. Hanover separated from England.

A.D.
1846. The Bill for the gradual **Repeal of the Corn-laws** passed.
1854. The Battles of *Alma*, *Balaclava*, *Inkerman*.
1855. *The Fall of Sebastopol.*
1857. *The Indian Mutiny*—the capture of *Delhi*, the massacre at *Cawnpore*, the relief of *Lucknow*.
1862. The Cotton Famine in Lancashire, caused by the Civil War in America, 1861–1865.
1870. **The Irish Land Act** and the **Elementary Education Act** passed.
1878. **The Congress of Berlin** to settle the Russo-Turkish difficulty.
1882. Arabi defeated at *Tel-el-Kebir*.
1885. The death of General Gordon at Khartoum.
1886. Defeat of the Gladstone Scheme for **Home Rule** in Ireland.
1889. **County Councils Act** passed.
1894. **Parish Councils Act** passed.
1898. *Battle of Omdurman*—Re-conquest of the Sudan.
1899. **Boers declared war.** Ladysmith, Kimberley, and Mafeking besieged.
1900. Towns relieved; Bloemfontein and Pretoria captured; **Transvaal** and **Orange Free State** proclaimed British territory.
1901. January 22, **Death of Queen Victoria.** Accession of Edward VII.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF

GREAT EVENTS IN SCOTTISH HISTORY.

A.D.

80. Julius Agricola invaded Scotland.

84. The Romans defeated the Caledonians at *Mons Grampius*.

209. The Romans built a wall—now known as Graham's Dyke—between the Forth and the Clyde.

4th Century; 5th Century. The Picts—formerly Caledonians, and the Scots—immigrants from Ireland into North Britain—invaded South Britain.

843. **Union of the Picts and Scots** under Kenneth MacAlpine.

945. Malcolm, King of Scots, obtained Strathclyde from Edmund on military tenure.

966. Edgar granted Lothian to Kenneth II.

1056. Malcolm Canmore became King of Scotland.

1068. Malcolm Canmore married Margaret, sister of Edgar the Atheling.

1072. William I. compelled Malcolm Canmore to do him homage.

1100. Henry I. of England married Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III., thus uniting Norman and Saxon royal lines.

1138. David I. defeated at the *Battle of the Standard*.

1157. Malcolm IV. did homage to Henry II. for the Earldom of Huntingdon.

1174. William the Lion captured near *Alnwick*; **Treaty of Falaise**; William did homage for Scotland.

1189. Richard I. released William the Lion from his feudal obligation.

A.D.

1222. The Border line between England and Scotland fixed.

1263. The last Invasion of the Northmen; Haco's fleet destroyed at *Largs*.

1286. Death of Alexander III.

1290. Death of the Maid of Norway.

1291. **Meeting at Norham** with Edward I.

1292. John Balliol crowned at Scone.

1296. *Battle of Dunbar*; Balliol dethroned.

1297. *Battle of Stirling Bridge*.

1298. Wallace defeated at *Falkirk*.

1303. Defeat of English at *Roslin*.

1304. Stirling Castle captured; Conquest of Scotland completed.

1305. Wallace betrayed, condemned, and executed.

1306. Bruce killed Comyn at Dumfries; crowned at Scone; defeated at *Methven*.

1307. Bruce defeated the English at *Loudon Hill*.

1311. Castle of Linlithgow taken by the Scots.

1313. Roxburgh and Edinburgh Castles taken by the Scots.

1314. *The Battle of Bannockburn*.

1328. The complete independence of Scotland recognized by England.

1333. *Battle of Halidon Hill*.

1346. Defeat of the Scots at *Nevill's Cross*; capture of David II.

1388. *The Battle of Otterburn or Chevy Chase*.

1396. Clan *Battle on the North Inch* of Perth.

1401. Murder of the Duke of Rothesay in Falkland Palace.

A.D.

1402. The Scots defeated at *Homildon Hill.*

1411. *The Battle of Harlaw* established the superiority of the Lowlands over the Highlands.

1413. The University of St. Andrew's founded.

1421. *The Battle of Beaugé.*

1440. The Black Douglas's Dinner.

1448. Defeat of English at the *Battle of Sark.*

1482. Cochran hanged at Lauder Bridge by Archibald Bell-the-Cat

1488. *Battle of Sauchieburn.*

1502. James IV. married Margaret Tudor.

1513. *The Battle of Flodden.*

1520. "Cleanse the Causeway."

1542. The Scots defeated at *Solway Moss.*

1544. English defeated at *Ancrum.*

1547. The Scots defeated at the *Battle of Pinkie.*

1557. The first Covenant or "band" signed at Edinburgh.

1567. The Murder of Darnley.

1568. Mary Queen of Scots defeated at *Langside.*

1582. University of Edinburgh founded; Raid of Ruthven.

1587. Mary Queen of Scots executed at Fotheringay Castle.

1600. The Gowrie Conspiracy.

1603. **The Union of the Crowns of England and Scotland.**

AFTER THE UNION OF 1603.

A.D.

1637. The Riot in St. Giles's Church.

1645. The Marquis of Montrose defeated by David Leslie at *Philiphaugh.*

1648. The Scots defeated by Cromwell at *Preston.*

1650. Defeat and Execution of Montrose; Scots, under Leslie, defeated at *Dunbar.*

1651. Charles II. crowned at Scone.

1661. The Marquis of Argyle beheaded.

1666. The Scottish Covenanters defeated at *Rullion Green* on the Pentland Hills.

1679. Archbishop Sharp murdered on Magus Moor; Graham of Claverhouse defeated by the Covenanters at *Drumclog*; Covenanters routed at *Bothwell Bridge.*

1684–1688. "The killing time."

1685. The Rising and Execution of Argyle.

1689. Meeting of the Scottish Convention; defeat of William's troops at *Killiecrankie.*

1692. The Massacre of Glencoe.

1699. Failure of the Darien Scheme.

1707. **The Act for the Union** passed.

1715. First Jacobite Rebellion: "The 'Fifteen".

1745. Second Jacobite Rebellion: "The 'Forty-five".

1746. *The Battle of Culloden.*

1832. The Reform Act gave Scotland fifty-three representatives.

1872. The Education (Scotland) Act passed for the formation of School Boards.

THIRTY MEMORABLE DATES IN BRITISH HISTORY.

B.C.

55. Cæsar's First Invasion of Britain.

A.D.

43. Beginning of the Roman Conquest of Britain.

449. Beginning of the English Conquest of Britain.

597. Mission of St. Augustine to Britain.

787. First Invasion of the Northmen.

871. The accession of Alfred the Great.

1066. The Norman Conquest of England.

1215. The Great Charter signed.

1265. Simon de Montfort's Parliament.

1282. The Conquest of Wales by Edward I.

1314. The Battle of Bannockburn.

1485. The Battle of Bosworth: End of the Wars of the Roses.

1513. The Battle of Flodden.

1529. The Reformation begins.

A.D.

1588. Defeat of the Spanish Armada.

1603. The Union of the Crowns of England and Scotland.

1611. The Authorized Version of the Bible published.

1649. Charles I. beheaded.

1660. The Restoration of Charles II.

1679. Habeas Corpus Act passed.

1688. The Glorious Revolution.

1707. The Union of the Parliaments of England and Scotland.

1715. The First Jacobite Rebellion: "The 'Fifteen".

1745. The Second Jacobite Rebellion: "The 'Forty-five".

1776. Declaration of Independence by the United States.

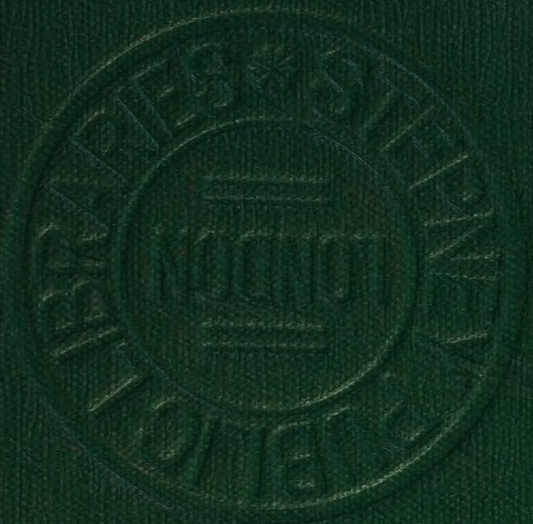
1800. The Act for the Union of Great Britain and Ireland passed.

1815. The Battle of Waterloo.

1832. The Reform Bill passed by the Lords.

1846. The Repeal of the Corn-laws.

1857. The Indian Mutiny.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